

*Columbia Inst*

62D CONGRESS }  
2d Session }

SENATE

{ DOCUMENT  
No. 139

*Report of* PROCEEDINGS  
OF THE NINETEENTH MEETING OF THE  
CONVENTION OF  
AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS  
OF THE DEAF

HELD AT

THE WISCONSIN SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF  
DELAVER, WIS., JULY 6-13

1911



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DECEMBER 7, 1911.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia  
and ordered to be printed, with accompanying illustration

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1912

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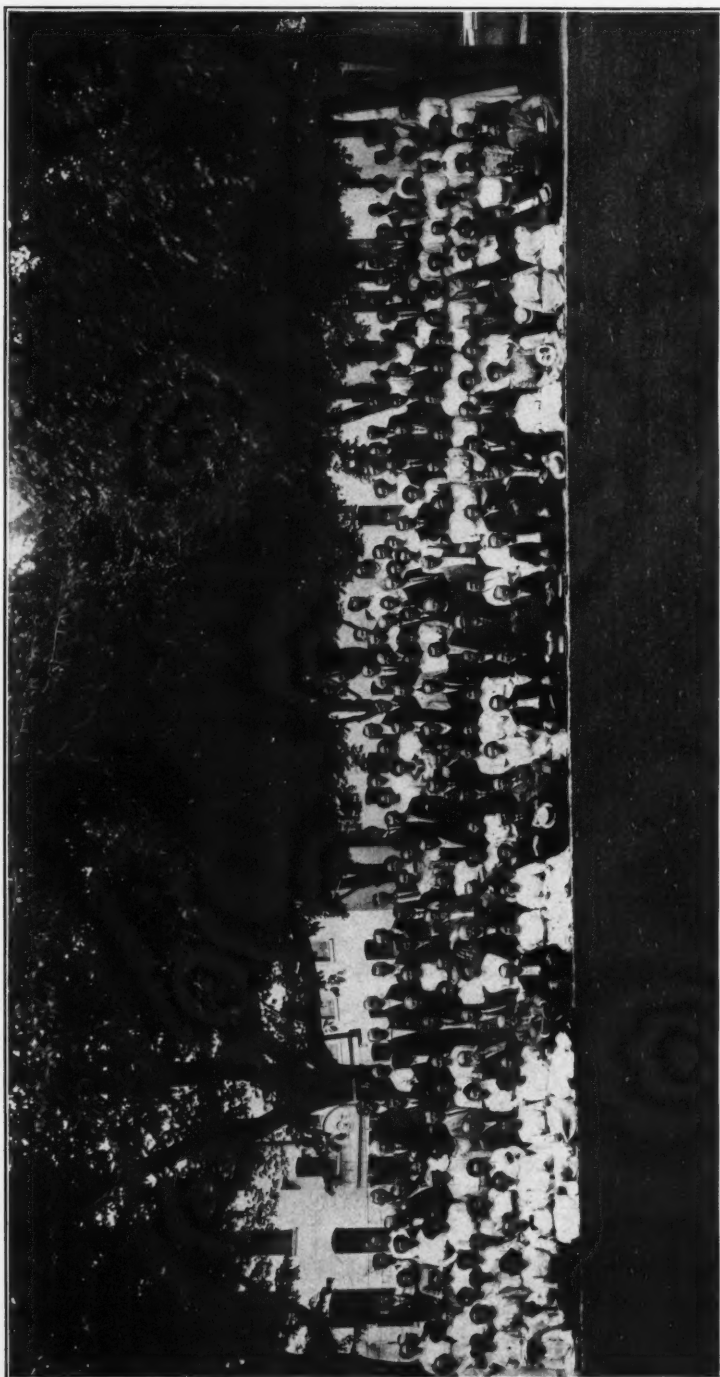
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1912

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THE  
JOURNAL OF THE  
AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION  
PUBLISHED WEEKLY  
CHICAGO, ILL., U.S.A.







CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF, NINETEENTH MEETING, DELAVAN, WIS., JULY 6-13, 1911.

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### LETTER OF SUBMITTAL.

COLUMBIA INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF,  
*Washington, D. C., December 5, 1911.*

*To the Congress of the United States:*

In accordance with the act of incorporation of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, approved January 26, 1897, I have the honor to submit to Congress the proceedings of the nineteenth meeting of the convention, held at Delavan, Wis., July 6 to 13, 1911. I have the honor to be,

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

PERCIVAL HALL, *President.*

HON. JAMES S. SHERMAN,  
*President of the Senate.*

HON. CHAMP CLARK,  
*Speaker of the House.*

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24 Feb 45

## LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

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COLUMBIA INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF,  
*Washington, D. C., December 2, 1911.*

DEAR SIR: In accordance with the act of incorporation of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, approved January 26, 1897, requiring a report to Congress through the president of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Washington, D. C., "of such portions of its proceedings as its officers shall deem to be of general public interest and value concerning the education of the deaf," I have the honor to transmitt herewith the most interesting and valuable portions of the proceedings of the nineteenth meeting of the convention, held in Delavan, Wis., July 6 to 13, inclusive, 1911, and to ask that this report be laid before Congress.

Very respectfully, yours,

HERBERT E. DAY, *Secretary.*

PERCIVAL HALL, M. A.,  
*President Columbia Institution for the Deaf.*

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## ACT OF INCORPORATION.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That Edward M. Gallaudet, of Washington, in the District of Columbia; Francis D. Clarke, of Flint, in the State of Michigan; S. Tefft Walker, of Jacksonville, in the State of Illinois; James L. Smith, of Fairbault, in the State of Minnesota; Sarah Fuller, of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts; David C. Dudley, of Colorado Springs, in the State of Colorado; and John R. Dobyne, of Jackson, in the State of Mississippi, officers and members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and their associates and successors, be, and they are hereby, incorporated and made a body politic and corporate in the District of Columbia, by the name of the "Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf," for the promotion of the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced and practical lines, and by that name it may sue and be sued, plead and be impleaded, in any court of law or equity, and may use and have a common seal and change the same at pleasure.*

SEC. 2. That the said corporation shall have the power to take and hold personal estate and such real estate as shall be necessary and proper for the promotion of the educational and benevolent purposes of said corporation, which shall not be divided among the members of the corporation, but shall descend to their successors for the promotion of the objects aforesaid.

SEC. 3. That said corporation shall have a constitution and regulations or by-laws and shall have the power to amend the same at pleasure: *Provided*, That such constitution and regulations or by-laws do not conflict with the laws of the United States or of any State.

SEC. 4. That said association may hold its meetings in such places as said incorporators shall determine, and shall report to Congress, through the president of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Washington, District of Columbia, such portions of its proceedings and transactions as its officers shall deem to be of general public interest and value concerning the education of the deaf.

Approved, January 26, 1897.

OFFICE  
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*Vice*  
Missippi



**OFFICERS OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF, 1911-1914—STANDING EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE AND OTHER STANDING COMMITTEES.**

**OFFICERS.**

*President.*—Dr. E. M. GALLAUDET, 128 Woodland Street, Hartford, Conn., ex-president of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf.

*Vice president.*—Dr. J. R. DOBYNS, Jackson, Miss., superintendent of the Mississippi Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.

*Secretary.*—HERBERT E. DAY, Washington, D. C., professor in Gallaudet College.

*Treasurer.*—J. SCHUYLER LONG, Council Bluffs, Iowa, instructor in the Iowa School for the Deaf.

**DIRECTORS.**

[The directors, with the officers, form the standing executive committee.]

E. W. WALKER, Delavan, Wis., superintendent of the Wisconsin School for the Deaf.

A. H. WALKER, St. Augustine, Fla., president of the Florida School for the Deaf and Blind.

JAMES N. TATE, Faribault, Minn., superintendent of the Minnesota School for the Deaf.

**STANDING COMMITTEES.**

*Normal section.*—Miss CAROLINE A. YALE, of Massachusetts, chairman; PERCIVAL HALL, of the District of Columbia; R. O. JOHNSON, of Indiana; E. A. GRUVER, of New York; Miss MARY McCOWEN, of Chicago, Ill.

*Oral section.*—Dr. A. L. E. CROUTER, of Pennsylvania, chairman; Miss FRANCES WETTSTEIN, of Wisconsin; F. M. DRIGGS, of Utah; HARRIS TAYLOR, of New York; F. W. BOOTH, of Nebraska.

*Auricular section.*—HARRIS TAYLOR, of New York, chairman; W. N. BURT, of Pennsylvania; W. K. ARGO, of Colorado; Miss AMY BURKE, of Ontario; J. F. BLEDSOE, of Maryland.

*Art section.*—Miss MARY B. BEATTIE, of Michigan, chairman; Miss MARY C. UPHAM, of Illinois; Miss STELLA A. FISKE, of Wisconsin; Mrs. O. A. BETTS, of New York; Miss ELEANOR P. JONES, of Pennsylvania.

*Kindergarten section.*—R. O. JOHNSON, of Indiana, chairman; Mrs. CORNELIA B. EGGERS, of Illinois; Miss MARY M. LYNE, of Colorado; Miss GEORGIA E. ANDREWS, of New York; Miss EDNA D. GENT, of Manitoba.

*Industrial section.*—WARREN ROBINSON, of Wisconsin, chairman; C. E. WHITE, of Kansas; Mrs. MINNIE B. KREUGER, of Illinois; DUNCAN A. CAMERON, of Mississippi; J. M. STEWART, of Michigan.

*Eastern local section.*—ROBERT PATTERSON, of Ohio, chairman; A. C. MANNING, of Pennsylvania; Miss HELEN B. FAY, of the District of Columbia; Miss MYRA L. BARRAGEN, of New York; C. W. ELY, of Maryland.

*Southern local section.*—W. LAURENS WALKER, of South Carolina, chairman; G. D. EURITT, of Virginia; CONNER W. WRIGHT, of Georgia; J. W. BLATTNER, of Texas; WESTON JENKINS, of Alabama.

*Western local section.*—F. P. CLARKE, of Washington, chairman; Miss GRACE M. BEATTIE, of Colorado; Miss ETHEL M. HAMMOND, of Wisconsin; H. J. McDERMID, of Manitoba; Miss N. A. POLLARD, of Minnesota.

**OFFICERS OF THE CONVENTION, 1908-1911.**

*President.*—Dr. E. M. GALLAUDET, Washington, D. C., president of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.

*Vice president.*—Dr. J. R. DOBYNS, Jackson, Mich., superintendent of the Mississippi School for the Deaf.

*Secretary.*—PERCIVAL HALL, Washington, D. C., professor in Gallaudet College.  
*Treasurer.*—J. SCHUYLER LONG, Council Bluffs, Iowa, instructor in the Iowa School for the Deaf.

## DIRECTORS.

[The directors, with the officers, form the standing executive committee.]

E. McK. GOODWIN, Morganton, N. C., superintendent of the North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb.

F. M. DRIGGS, Ogden, Utah, superintendent of the Utah School for the Deaf and the Blind.

R. O. JOHNSON, Indianapolis, Ind., superintendent of the Indiana State School for the Deaf.

## ACTIVE MEMBERS.

## LIFE MEMBERS.

Clarke, F. D., Flint, Mich.

Currier, E. H., Station M, New York, N. Y.

Humbert, Mrs. L. A., Colorado Springs, Colo.

Larson, L. M., Sante Fe, N. Mex.

Anderson, Enga, Sulphur, Okla.  
 Archer, T. V., Morganton, N. C.  
 Archibald, Orson, Indianapolis, Ind.  
 Argo, W. K., Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Atwood, R. H., Columbus, Ohio.  
 Baggerman, Yetta, Sulphur, Okla.  
 Ballis, J. C., Belleville, Ontario.  
 Ballis, Mrs. S. C., Belleville, Ontario.  
 Bangs, D. F., Devils Lake, S. Dak.  
 Barrager, Myra L., Station M, New York, N. Y.  
 Beattie, Grace M., Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Beattie, Mary, Flint, Mich.  
 Bell, Frances K., Fulton, Mo.  
 Bell, Ida, Morganton, N. C.  
 Bennett, Mary E., Los Angeles, Cal.  
 Betts, O. A., Rome, N. Y.  
 Betts, Mrs. O. A., Rome, N. Y.  
 Billings, Carrie, Flint, Mich.  
 Blaker, S. M., Kosciusko, Miss.  
 Blaker, T. B., Kosciusko, Miss.  
 Blattner, J. W., Austin, Tex.  
 Bledsoe, John F., Overlea, Md.  
 Bock, Grace, Council Bluffs, Iowa.  
 Booth, F. W., Omaha, Nebr.  
 Bost, Elizabeth, Little Rock, Ark.  
 Bowles, W. A., Staunton, Va.  
 Britt, Mazie, Parsons, Kans.  
 Brown, Candace, Winnipeg, Manitoba.  
 Brown, Gertrude, Fulton, Mo.  
 Brown, Margaret, Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Bruns, Henry, Faribault, Minn.  
 Burke, Amy, Belleville, Ontario.  
 Burke, Sister Mary Ann, Buffalo, N. Y.  
 Burt, W. N., Edgewood Park, Pa.  
 Cade, Jennie, Chicago, Ill.  
 Caldwell, W. A., Berkeley, Cal.  
 Calloway, Marie, Little Rock, Ark.  
 Cameron, Duncan A., Jackson, Miss.  
 Camp, Pauline, Morganton, N. C.  
 Cannon, Ella, Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Carter, Clyde, Sulphur Springs, Ark.  
 Casdon, Mary, Staunton, Va.  
 Clarke, Elizabeth, New Berne, N. C.  
 Clarke, Thomas, Vancouver, Wash.

Cloak, Ellen E., Westchester, N. Y.  
 Clodfelter, Mrs. J. R., Morganton, N. C.  
 Cloud, Rev. J. H., St. Louis, Mo.  
 Coburn, Alice, Delavan, Wis.  
 Cochrane, W. A., Delavan, Wis.  
 Condon, Annie M., Flint, Mich.  
 Connor, W. O., Cave Spring, Ga.  
 Connor, W. O., jr., Sante Fe, N. Mex.  
 Cook, J. R., Winnipeg, Manitoba.  
 Cook, Mrs. J. R., Winnipeg, Manitoba.  
 Cooper, Lucille, New York, N. Y.  
 Cory, Julia, Griggsville, Ill.  
 Crouter, A. L. E., Mount Airy, Pa.  
 Davis, Amanda, Marianna, Ark.  
 Dawes, Rachel, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.  
 Day, Herbert E., Washington, D. C.  
 Dewar, Frances, Muskegon, Mich.  
 Dobyns, J. R., Jackson, Miss.  
 Donald, Ida, Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Dositheus, Sister M., Buffalo, N. Y.  
 Draper, Amos G., Washington, D. C.  
 Driggs, F. M., Ogden, Utah.  
 Duggan, May, Oskosh, Wis.  
 Dwyer, B. E., Buffalo, N. Y.  
 Eddy, J. Holbrook, Little Rock, Ark.  
 Eggers, Mrs. Cornelia B., Chicago, Ill.  
 Eickoff, A. J., Flint, Mich.  
 Elchoff, Mrs. A. J., Flint, Mich.  
 Ely, Charles W., Frederick, Md.  
 Ely, Grace D., Frederick, Md.  
 Erd, Robert, Flint, Mich.  
 d'Estrella, T. H., Berkeley, Cal.  
 Euphemia, Sister M., Buffalo, N. Y.  
 Euritt, G. D., Staunton, Va.  
 Euritt, Mrs. G. D., Staunton, Va.  
 Fay, Dr. E. A., Washington, D. C.  
 Fay, Helen, Washington, D. C.  
 Fisher, Alice, Delavan, Wis.  
 Fiske, Stella, Delavan, Wis.  
 Fitzgerald, Edith, Delavan, Wis.  
 Flaherty, Ellen, Westchester, N. Y.  
 Flynn, Margaret, Fordham, N. Y.  
 Fonner, Mary M., Delavan, Wis.  
 Fowler, Frances, Delavan, Wis.  
 Gallaudet, E. M., Washington D. C.  
 Gardner, Hannah I., Appleton, Wis.

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 Kruege  
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 Larsen  
 Leveck  
 Long,  
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 Lowe,  
 Lyne,  
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Gardner, Isaac B., Little Rock, Ark.  
 Gault, Etta R., Fond du Lac, Wis.  
 Gebhardt, Helen M., Wausau, S. C.  
 Gent, Edna D., Indianapolis, Ind.  
 Gillett, Charles P., Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Gillis, Lena, Winnipeg, Manitoba.  
 Goodwin, E. McK., Morganton, N. C.  
 Goolsbe, Winnie G., Jackson, Miss.  
 Granger, Audria, Olathe, Kans.  
 Gray, W. F., Delavan, Wis.  
 Greener, A. B., Columbus, Ohio.  
 Griffin, Mary E., Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Gruver, E. A., Rome, N. Y.  
 Haggerty, Thomas, Delavan, Wis.  
 Hall, Percival, Washington, D. C.  
 Hammond, Ethelwyn M., Delavan, Wis.  
 Hansen, Blanche M., Faribault, Minn.  
 Harwood, Viola, Darien, Wis.  
 Harper, Lucy C., Little Rock, Ark.  
 Heath, Marcia, Grand Rapids, Mich.  
 Herdman, Pearl W., St. Louis, Mo.  
 Hill, Victoria L., Jackson, Miss.  
 Hobart, Almira L., Delavan, Wis.  
 Hockensmith, Frances, Sulphur, Okla.  
 Horton, Frank C., Denver, Colo.  
 Hubbard, Willis, Flint, Mich.  
 Hughes, Peter T., Sulphur, Okla.  
 Jackson, Anna W., Jacksonville, Ill.  
 James, Ada, St. Thomas, Canada.  
 Jameson, Dolly, Fulton, Mo.  
 Jenkins, Olive, Winnipeg, Manitoba.  
 Jenkins, Weston, Talladega, Ala.  
 Jewell, Eleanor B., Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Jewell, Grace M., Sioux Falls, S. Dak.  
 Johnson, J. H., Talladega, Ala.  
 Johnson, R. O., Indianapolis, Ind.  
 Johnson, W. S., Talladega, Ala.  
 Johnston, Effie, Chicago, Ill.  
 Joiner, G. A., Talladega, Ala.  
 Jones, Eleanor, Fulton, Mo.  
 Jones, Eleanor P., Carbondale, Pa.  
 Jones, Florence H., Flint, Mich.  
 Jones, J. W., Columbus, Ohio.  
 Jones, Mrs. J. W., Columbus, Ohio.  
 Jordan, Edith, Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Jordan, Mrs. Helen R., Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Kearny, Alfred, Jackson, Miss.  
 Kellogg, Elizabeth, Indianapolis, Ind.  
 Kennedy, Nannie C., Dayton, Ohio.  
 Kilgore, Willie, Parkville, Md.  
 Kilpatrick, Anna B., Ogden, Utah.  
 Kilpatrick, Walter M., Hartford, Conn.  
 King, Mabel M., Chicago, Ill.  
 King, Marian, Chicago, Ill.  
 Kinsley, Ida B., Indianapolis, Ind.  
 Krueger, Mrs. Minnie B., Sulphur, Okla.  
 Lange, Paul, Delavan, Wis.  
 Larsen, Betsy, Ogden, Utah.  
 Leveck, Margaret, Flint, Mich.  
 Long, J. Schuyler, Council Bluffs, Iowa.  
 Lowe, Dora H., Delavan, Wis.  
 Lyne, Florence C., Lexington, Ky.  
 Lyne, Mary M., Lexington, Ky.

Manning, Arthur C., Mount Airy, Pa.  
 Mauzy, Christine M., Jackson, Miss.  
 McArdle, Sadie, Wolfe Island, Ontario.  
 McCowen, Mary, Chicago, Ill.  
 McDaniel, Nettie, Morganton, N. C.  
 McDermid, Howard J., Winnipeg, Manitoba.  
 McFarlane, John H., Omaha, Nebr.  
 McGregor, R. P., Columbus, Ohio.  
 Menzemer, Herbert J., Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Meunier, Otto C., Danville, Ky.  
 Michaelson, E. L., Council Bluffs, Iowa.  
 Milligan, L. E., Boulder, Mont.  
 Montague, R. Cary, Romney, W. Va.  
 Murray, Mary, Olathe, Kans.  
 Neesam, Frederick J., Delavan, Wis.  
 Neldon, A. Gertrude, Baton Rouge, La.  
 Odebrecht, Leonce A., Columbus, Ohio.  
 Owen, Viola, Jackson, Miss.  
 Palm, Elnora, Austin, Tex.  
 Patterson, Robert, Columbus, Ohio.  
 Peet, Elizabeth, Washington, D. C.  
 Peterson, P. N., Faribault, Minn.  
 Plouer, Alice May, Mount Airy, Pa.  
 Pollard, Nannie A., Faribault, Minn.  
 Quinn, Josephine F., Faribault, Minn.  
 Ray, John E., Raleigh, N. C.  
 Read, Frank, jr., Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Read, Mrs. M. K. S., Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Reed, Katherine F., Milwaukee, Wis.  
 Regnier, Alberta, Omaha, Nebr.  
 Ritter, William C., Newport News, Va.  
 Ritter, Mrs. William C., Newport News, Va.  
 Roth, Louis A., Faribault, Minn.  
 Roberts, Arthur L., Olathe, Kans.  
 Roberts, Margaret H., Danville, Ky.  
 Robinson, Mattie, Ogden, Utah.  
 Robinson, Warren, Delavan, Wis.  
 Rodwell, Thomas, Belleville, Ontario.  
 Rogers, Augustus, Danville, Ky.  
 Rogers, Ethyl, Omaha, Nebr.  
 Roper, Annie M., St. Louis, Mo.  
 Rothert, Henry W., Council Bluffs, Iowa.  
 Rothert, Waldo H., Omaha, Nebr.  
 Rowse, Edward M., Jackson, Miss.  
 Schoolfield, George T., Danville, Ky.  
 Schory, Albert J., Columbus, Ohio.  
 Schwirtz, John, Faribault, Minn.  
 Schwirtz, Mrs. John, Faribault, Minn.  
 Sheridan, Laura, Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Sheridan, Thomas, Devils Lake, N. Dak.  
 Simpson, Harriet, Sioux Falls, S. Dak.  
 Simpson, Mary L., Sioux Falls, S. Dak.  
 Smith, Florence G. S., Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.  
 Smith, J. L., Faribault, Minn.  
 Spence, V. R., Faribault, Minn.  
 Stanback, Miss Lester, Ogden, Utah.  
 Steed, Lyman, Washington, D. C.  
 Steldeman, Clara L., St. Louis, Mo.  
 Steinke, Agnes, Council Bluffs, Iowa.  
 Stevens, Mrs. Harriet C., Cave Spring, Ga.

Stewart, A., Little Rock, Ark.  
 Stewart, A. A., Sulphur, Okla.  
 Stewart, James M., Flint, Mich.  
 Stewart, Stella, Mount Airy, Pa.  
 Streby, Sarah B., Council Bluffs, Iowa.  
 Swink, W. C., Salem, Oreg.  
 Targent, F. L., Romney, W. Va.  
 Tate, Elizabeth, Faribault, Minn.  
 Tate, J. N., Faribault, Minn.  
 Taylor, Harris, New York, N. Y.  
 Taylor, Mrs. La Verne, Delavan, Wis.  
 Teegarden, G. W., Edgewood Park, Pa.  
 Thomas, Olivia, Austin, Tex.  
 Thompson, E. Stanley, Mount Airy, Pa.  
 Thompson, H. E., Boulder, Mont.  
 Tillinghast, E. S., Salem, Oreg.  
 Tilton, W. I., Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Travis, John C., Indianapolis, Ind.  
 Tully, J. J., Westchester, N. Y.  
 Upham, Mary C., Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Van Deveer, Blanche, Stanford, Ky.  
 Walte, Helen, Omaha, Nebr.  
 Walker, A. H., St. Augustine, Fla.

Walker, Mary Frances, Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Walker, N. F., Cedar Spring, S. C.  
 Walker, W. L., Cedar Spring, S. C.  
 Ward, Lovilla, Cave Spring, Ga.  
 Wettstein, Frances, Milwaukee, Wis.  
 White, Cyrus E., Olathe, Kans.  
 Wilcoxson, Florence, Council Bluffs, Iowa.  
 Williams, Fanny, Chicago, Ill.  
 Williams, Job, Hartford, Conn.  
 Williams, Mary E., Delavan, Wis.  
 Winemiller, John C., Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Winston, Matie E., Delavan, Wis.  
 Winter, Clara L., Faribault, Minn.  
 Wood, S. Frances, Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Woodbury, Max W., Ogden, Utah.  
 Wright, C. W., Cave Spring, Ga.  
 Yale, Caroline A., Northampton, Mass.  
 Young, Jane, Jacksonville, Ill.  
 Young, Sadie, Colorado Springs, Colo.

## HONORARY MEMBERS.

Archer, Mrs. T. V., Morganton, N. C.  
 Argo, Mrs. W. K., Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Beardsley, Jessie A., Madison, S. Dak.  
 Day, Mrs. Herbert E., Washington, D. C.  
 Dobyns, Mrs. J. R., Jackson, Miss.  
 Dougherty, George T., Chicago, Ill.  
 Dougherty, Mrs. George T., Chicago, Ill.  
 Flick, Rev. George F., Chicago, Ill.  
 Gibson, F. P., Chicago, Ill.  
 Gibson, Mrs. F. P., Chicago, Ill.  
 Gillis, Thora, Winnipeg, Manitoba.  
 Hasenstab, Rev. P. J., Chicago, Ill.  
 Howard, J. C., Duluth, Minn.  
 Humphrey, J. F., Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Kilpatrick, Mrs. W. M., Hartford, Conn.

Long, Mrs. J. S., Council Bluffs, Iowa.  
 McAlevy, John F., Pawtucket, R. I.  
 Menzemer, Mrs. Herbert J., Colorado Springs, Colo.  
 Murtell, Rev. T. A., Chicago, Ill.  
 Noyes, F. K., Washington, D. C.  
 Pach, Alex L., New York, N. Y.  
 Purdum, John E., Chicago, Ill.  
 Rothert, Mrs. W. H., Omaha, Nebr.  
 Sayles, W. W., Chicago, Ill.  
 Smith, Vina, Chicago, Ill.  
 Stewart, Mrs. J. M., Flint, Mich.  
 Vandegrift, Edith, Austin, Minn.  
 Wangerin, Rev. T. M., Milwaukee, Wis.  
 Welch, James E., Philadelphia, Pa.  
 Yaa, Silvano Yor, Rio Janeiro, Brazil.

## Summary.

	Active.	Honor-ary.	Total.		Active.	Honor-ary.	Total.
Alabama.....	4	.....	4	North Carolina.....	8	1	9
Arkansas.....	3	.....	3	North Dakota.....	1	.....	1
California.....	3	.....	3	Ohio.....	9	.....	9
Colorado.....	2	3	12	Oklahoma.....	6	.....	6
Connecticut.....	3	1	3	Oregon.....	2	.....	2
Florida.....	1	.....	1	Pennsylvania.....	9	1	10
Georgia.....	4	.....	4	Rhode Island.....	.....	1	1
Illinois.....	22	10	32	South Carolina.....	3	.....	3
Indiana.....	6	.....	6	South Dakota.....	5	1	6
Iowa.....	7	1	8	Texas.....	3	.....	3
Kansas.....	5	.....	5	Utah.....	6	.....	6
Kentucky.....	7	.....	7	Virginia.....	1	.....	1
Louisiana.....	1	.....	1	Washington.....	6	.....	6
Maryland.....	4	.....	4	West Virginia.....	2	.....	2
Massachusetts.....	1	.....	1	Wisconsin.....	24	1	25
Michigan.....	12	1	13	District of Colum- bia.....	8	2	10
Minnesota.....	13	2	15	Brazil.....	6	1	7
Mississippi.....	10	1	11	Manitoba.....	6	.....	6
Missouri.....	8	.....	8	Ontario.....	6	.....	6
Montana.....	2	1	3				
Nebraska.....	1	.....	1	Total.....	256	30	286
New Mexico.....	1	.....	1				
New York.....	15	1	16				

# CONSTITUTION OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF.

## ARTICLE I.

### NAME.

This association shall be called the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

## ARTICLE II.

### OBJECTS.

The objects of this association shall be:

*First.* To secure the harmonious union, in one organization, of all persons actually engaged in educating the deaf in America.

*Second.* To provide for general and local meetings of such persons, from time to time, with a view of affording opportunities for a free interchange of views concerning methods and means of educating the deaf.

*Third.* To promote, by the publication of reports, essays, and other writings, the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced, and practical lines, in harmony with the sentiments and practice suggested by the following preamble and resolutions, unanimously adopted by the convention in 1886, at a meeting held in Berkeley, Cal.

Whereas the experience of many years in the instruction of the deaf has plainly shown that among the members of this class of persons great differences exist in mental and physical conditions and in capacity for improvement, making results easily possible in certain cases which are practically and sometimes actually unattainable in others, these differences suggesting widely different treatment with different individuals, it is, therefore,

*Resolved,* That the system of instruction existing at present in America commends itself to the world, for the reason that its tendency is to include all known methods and expedients which have been found to be of value in the education of the deaf, while it allows diversity and independence of action, and works at the same time harmoniously, aiming at the attainment of an object common to all.

*Resolved,* That earnest and persistent endeavors should be made in every school for the deaf to teach every pupil to speak and read from the lips, and that such efforts should be abandoned only when it is plainly evident that the measure of success attained does not justify the necessary amount of labor. *Provided,* That the children who are given to articulation teachers for trial should be given to teachers who are trained for the work and not to novices, before saying that it is a failure: And, *Provided,* That a general test be made, and that those who are found to have sufficient hearing to distinguish sounds shall be instructed aurally.

*Fourth.* As an association to stand committed to no particular theory, method, or system, and adopting as its guide the following motto: "Any method for good results; all methods, and wedded to none."

## ARTICLE III.

### MEMBERS.

SECTION 1. All persons actively engaged in the education of the deaf may enjoy all the rights and privileges of membership in the association on payment of the prescribed fees and agreeing to this constitution.

SEC. 2. Eligibility of applicants is to be determined by the standing executive committee and reported to the convention.

SEC. 3. Any person may become an honorary member of the association, enjoying all the rights and privileges of membership except those of voting and holding office, on being elected by vote of the association.

SEC. 4. Each person joining the association shall pay a fee of \$2 for the first year and \$1 annually thereafter.



SEC. 5. Any member of the association desiring to commute the annual dues into single payment for life shall be constituted a life member on the payment of \$25.

SEC. 6. Applications for membership must be made to the treasurer, who will receive all membership fees and dues. All privileges of membership are forfeited by the nonpayment of dues.

#### ARTICLE IV.

##### OFFICERS.

SECTION 1. At each general meeting of the association there shall be elected by ballot a president, vice president, secretary, treasurer, and three directors; these seven persons forming the standing executive committee of the convention. They shall continue in office until their successors are elected, and shall have power to fill vacancies occurring in their body between general meetings.

SEC. 2. There shall also be elected by ballot at each general meeting of the association nine chairmen of committees, as follows: One for a normal section, one for an industrial section, one for an oral section, one for an art section, one for an auricular section, one for a kindergarten section, one for an eastern local committee, one for a western local committee, and one for a southern local committee. Before the adjournment of each general meeting, or immediately thereafter, the standing executive committee and the nine elected committee chairmen, acting together, shall elect four persons to membership in each of the nine committees herein provided for.

SEC. 3. The general management of the affairs of the association shall be in the hands of the standing executive committee, subject to the provisions of such by-laws as the association shall see fit to adopt.

SEC. 4. All officers and members of committees must be active members of the association in regular standing.

SEC. 5. The standing executive committee shall make a full report at each general meeting of all the operations of the association, including receipts and disbursement of funds, since the preceding meeting.

#### ARTICLE V.

##### MEETINGS.

SECTION 1. General meetings of the association shall be held triennially, but the standing executive committee may call other general meetings at their discretion.

SEC. 2. Local meetings may be convened as the standing executive committee and the committees on local meetings shall determine.

SEC. 3. Proxies shall not be used at any meeting of the association, but they may be used in committee meetings.

SEC. 4. Notice of general meetings shall be given at least four months in advance, and notice of local meetings at least two months in advance.

SEC. 5. The business of the association shall be transacted only at general meetings, and at such meetings 100 voting members of the association must be present to constitute a quorum.

#### ARTICLE VI.

In the first election of officers held under the provisions of this constitution, said election occurring immediately after its adoption, all duly accredited active members of the Fourteenth Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf shall be entitled to vote, said members making payment of their membership fees to the treasurer at the earliest practicable opportunity after he shall have been elected.

#### ARTICLE VII.

##### AMENDMENTS.

This constitution may be amended by an affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members present at any general meeting of the association: *Provided*, That at such meeting at least 150 voting members of the association shall be present.

#### ARTICLE VIII.

Devises and bequests may be worded as follows: "I give, devise, and bequeath to the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, for the promotion of the cause of the education of the deaf, in such manner as the standing executive committee thereof may direct," etc.; and if there be any conditions, add "subject only to the following conditions, to wit: \_\_\_\_\_."

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## PROCEEDINGS OF THE MEETING.

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## PROCEEDINGS OF THE MEETING.

### OPENING SESSION.

THURSDAY, JULY 6, 1911.

#### EVENING SESSION.

#### PROGRAM FOR FIRST DAY.

8 p. m. Convention called to order by Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, president.

Official greetings for political Wisconsin, the secretary of state, Hon. Duncan McGregor; for educational Wisconsin, Hon. C. P. Cary, superintendent public instruction; for the city of Delavan, Mr. I. B. Davies; for the Wisconsin school, Supt. E. W. Walker.

Responses: For the convention, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, president; for the North, Dr. J. N. Tate, Minnesota; for the East, Dr. W. N. Burt, Pennsylvania; for the South, Mr. W. O. Connor, Georgia; for the West, Mr. F. M. Driggs, Utah.

Reception.

The nineteenth meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf was called to order on Thursday evening, at 8 p. m., by President Gallaudet. He introduced the Hon. Duncan McGregor, secretary of state of Wisconsin.

#### ADDRESS OF THE HON. DUNCAN MCGREGOR.

Mr. President, ladies, and gentlemen, a substitute has always two sources of consolation. The first is that less is expected of him than of the principal; the second source of consolation is that he would rather have the principal present than himself. From the standpoint of the audience, however, the less said the better. Their consolation is something we had better say nothing about at present.

It is a source of pride, however, to be permitted to welcome this audience, this convention, to the State of Wisconsin; to stand here in place of his excellency, Gov. McGovern, and extend to you a most cordial welcome. We had it arranged so that it would have been a very warm welcome, too, but for some reason that has changed, probably to your satisfaction; it may be you are in some way responsible for it. However, as far as the climate is concerned, you have it just as we have it. We have not changed it at all.

The welcome from us is most hearty, and all the facilities that can be afforded by the State of Wisconsin will be afforded to you to make your visit pleasant. Our governor was a teacher himself but 10 years ago; had served 10 years as principal of a high school and in country schools, and I know he would have been very much pleased to have been with you to welcome you and to share in your labors and wish you Godspeed in the work that he has most earnestly at heart. Personally, I extend to you a welcome as a teacher, too, with an experience of 45 years, so that it is more natural for me, as you may well see, to speak as a teacher than to speak as a politician.

To-night I have been asked to welcome you to political Wisconsin; others will welcome you to educational Wisconsin. Now, Wisconsin is known in a political way; it has done some things in politics; it is doing things in politics.

We have put upon the statute books some of the most important laws that were ever passed by our State or in any State. The present legislature has not yet adjourned, although some of the legislators have returned to their homes, and that is the reason the governor can not be with you this evening. This legislature has written upon the statute books of Wisconsin some of the most important pieces of legislation ever conceived in any State or country of the world. The workman's compensation law, by which injury to a workman is settled automatically, without resorting to the courts and to the expense of lawsuits, is one of the most important acts ever passed by any legislature. There are other acts that have been passed. The woman's suffrage act has been passed, not to become a law immediately, but—we hope—as soon as the voters of the State have voted upon it, according to the referendum attached to the bill.

There is now before the governor, awaiting his signature, an income-tax bill that has been pronounced by experts as the most perfect income-tax law, if it becomes a law, that was ever passed in any State. Forty States of the Union have tried their hands at inaugurating an income-tax law and administering it; none of them have fully succeeded. We think we have a better law, and experts tell us we have a more reliable income-tax law, than any that has ever been passed in any State in the Union. The purpose of that law, as you may be well aware, is not to increase taxation, but to distribute it with some degree of equity. Heretofore, our visible property has paid all the taxes. Bonds, incomes, stocks, rentals have paid no taxes whatever. The result has been that the former has had to bear the burden of taxation. The object of this law is to reduce the amount of taxes paid by the former and to adjust taxation in a more equitable manner.

And to-night, in all probability, the governor of the State of Wisconsin, with pen in hand, is ready to place his signature to that bill and to-morrow it may become a law.

We have other movements in this State looking toward the improvement of the conditions of the people. The motto of this State is a very expressive one. It has been translated in the words of one of our great authorities, a great political leader whose name is known from shore to shore, as, "The will of the people shall be the law of the land." It is that doctrine that we are trying to put into practice to-day so that the will of the people shall control in this land of ours.

Then there is another peculiar thing about the emblem of this State. Many of you have no doubt observed it upon the seal of the great State of Wisconsin. There is one single English word on that seal; there are Latin words, belonging to the emblem of the United States, and used on our seal to indicate our loyalty to this Union of ours. But the one English word is printed on a scroll representing two of the leading industries of this country in two figures, one a miner and the other a sailor. The one English word is "forward." That is the rallying cry of the Wisconsin politician. Wisconsin lends no ear to any politician who does not believe in Wisconsin's motto.

You are teachers; I can talk to you as a teacher. I can use some of the language of the schoolroom to explain what I mean in this political talk. That word "forward," as we read it on our emblem of State, may be a noun; we do not know what part of speech the single word may be. You are many of you acquainted with the language of football and basket ball, and the play ground, and you know what a "forward" is, don't you? Is it not the fellow who leads, who is an aggressor, who has charge of one line? And so Wisconsin is in the lead. She is the "forward" in the game of political advancement, in the play we are trying to put up by which we can bring the people into a realization of their rights, that they may have what they are entitled to; that the will of the people shall be the law of this land, and Wisconsin is in the lead in teaching and practicing that doctrine, because that word stands, the only English word upon the great seal of this great Commonwealth of Wisconsin.

It can be a verb, can it not? And when a verb, what is its meaning? To every man, woman, and child who looks at it, it rings out the word, "Forward," as the general commands, through his trumpet, the army to move forward. Forward, Wisconsin! Let no State get advantage of you in moving forward. "Forward, march!" is the command that comes to Wisconsin, and we are obliged to obey. It is our motto; it is our password; it is our rallying cry. It is written in bold letters upon our banner and upon the great seal of the State.

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It may be an adjective, may it not? And then how do you interpret it? Wisconsin is a forward State. It is in the first line; it is ready for action. You are not obliged to send out a guard to find Wisconsin citizens to make them do their duty; they are ready, prompt, and willing; they are in the forward ranks, for "forward" is our rallying cry.

It may be an adverb, may it not? This shows the manner of Wisconsin in her political life; it is not revolution that Wisconsin wants; it is progression; it is the "forward" movement. The word is an adverb telling how she stands politically. Wisconsin is not radical, but she is progressive. She doesn't tear things up by the roots, but she encourages growth in right ways. She doesn't destroy in order that she may have the credit of putting something in place, but she builds up. She is not destructive, but she is constructive. Our motto will not allow us to be destructive. We are commanded by this motto to be constructive. She is in the front line, ready at the call to move forward. She will not bear to see retrogression, loss, or failure in carrying out the great principle that the will of the people shall be the law of the land.

Have you who live in Wisconsin or neighboring States ever noticed what a prominent part Wisconsin plays, not only within the State of Wisconsin, but among the neighboring States? I was just thinking to-day what could be the effect of that word "forward" if it were made to stare a child in the face from the walls of the schoolroom, and from public halls and places of public gathering, and, maybe, from the walls of the buildings on the street. There is something wonderful I discovered to-day. Out of 11 Congressmen and 2 Senators from the State of Wisconsin, 9 were born in Wisconsin; born right here under that banner, with that word for their watchword. And our senior Senator, who is acknowledged to be the leader of the progressive movement in these United States, was born not very far from where we are now. [Applause.]

Furthermore, the two Senators from Minnesota—Clapp and Nelson—are both Wisconsin men; not necessarily born in this State, but brought up and educated in Wisconsin. And two of their nine Congressmen in Minnesota are Wisconsin men. And one of their greatest statesmen, of whom you all have heard, was a Wisconsin man, educated in a Wisconsin academy. And, too, Steenserson, of Minnesota, was born in Dane County, near Madison.

We go down to Iowa, and we find three men from Iowa in the House of Representatives who are from Wisconsin. And a fourth man from Wisconsin is contesting the seat of one of these three. Mr. Dan Murphy is contesting the seat of Mr. Haugen and seems likely to win, and both Mr. Murphy and Mr. Haugen are Wisconsin men; Mr. Haugen born in Dane County, I think, and Mr. Murphy in Lafayette County. And Mr. Woods, who represents one of the districts in Iowa, was born in this county of Walworth. Now, it is a question what influences were at work to make so many of these young men, for they are all young men, so noted, so famous in political lines. My friends, I am a great believer in suggestion and environment, and I believe the silent suggestion of that word "forward," the fact that on every public document issued from the capitol of Wisconsin that word appears on the stationery, on every commission sent out, on every official document is the seal of the State with that word "forward." What can not such influence accomplish? Are you surprised that we in Wisconsin are progressive, if you please? How can we be otherwise? We are progressive, and we are going to progress more and more. We have put laws upon the statute books the like of which has never been before, and some States have copied them since. We introduced the idea—it was the Wisconsin idea—of the control of the railroads, and we are controlling them.

And so the public-utility law has been put upon our statute books, so that the public utility is protected, as well as the public protected, in this way. No public utility can come to compete with the public utility that is already established without the consent of the proper authorities. And unless that utility does the square thing to the community the law will step in and compel them to do what is right. And so the public is satisfied and the public utility is satisfied. That is the law in Wisconsin.

These are some of the things we are doing, some of the things we have done, and there are other things we are going to do.

We hope you will enjoy your visit in Wisconsin; we invite you most cordially to visit the capital. We have an unfinished building, it is true, but those of you who have read Anne of Green Gables will have an opportunity to remember

what she did, and imagine what it will look like when finished. We have as fine a country, as beautiful scenery, and as fertile soil as ever the sun shone on. We hope you will enjoy yourselves. We very much wish that you would decide to stay with us, but if you do not, we hope you will come back as soon as you can. We will make it just as pleasant and profitable as possible. We have lots of room in Wisconsin and we invite you most cordially to come and fill up, for we know you are as good people as we could want. I thank you.

Dr. GALLAUDET. I have the pleasure of introducing to you Supt. C. P. Cary, State superintendent of schools in Wisconsin, who will welcome you to educational Wisconsin.

#### ADDRESS OF WELCOME FOR EDUCATIONAL WISCONSIN, SUPT. C. P. CARY.

Ladies and gentlemen, it is a matter of great pleasure to me to welcome you here to-night. I have heard of your conventions at various times and various places. What excellent meetings you have had and what splendid things you have done for the cause of the education of the deaf. I am sure your meeting here will be one of great profit to those who are deficient in hearing, who have the misfortune to be deaf.

This is a most delightful State and a most delightful little city. Only a little way out, as you will find before long, is a beautiful lake, where, I believe, it is planned to hold one of your meetings.

As stated by the chairman, it was my pleasure to be in this school for a year nearly 10 years ago. To be sure it was a very short time, but there is one thing about that brief stay here which is peculiar, it seems to me, and that is the lasting friendships that were made and that have been so delightful to me. It is no unusual thing for me, as I go about the State of Wisconsin, to find some one rushing pell-mell at me whom I do not recognize at once, but very quickly, by the aid of the sign language, I discover it is a deaf person, some one I have come in contact with here, or somewhere else, through my connection with this institution, and the enthusiasm with which these deaf people greet me is one of the pleasureable things of my life. There is something about deaf people—I do not know whether you have noticed it or not, certainly you must—and that is their enthusiasm. They seem to take more delight in things than the average run of hearing people. The teachers of the deaf, too, are an enthusiastic bunch of people. I do not believe their equal, in accordance with numbers, can be found in any other phase of education. Why that is so, is too deep for me, but yet there seems to be that enthusiasm, that devotion to the cause of education, and that long continuance in the work that we seldom find in any other kind of instruction in schools.

Now, we have heard a great deal about political Wisconsin to-night and I am in hearty accord with all that has been said, and I do not care to take away any credit from the politician and those who are leading in those things, but after all I think you will agree with me that the foundation of progress is education, the education of the people, no matter what their condition or handicap in life may be, the education of all the people. There are times when we forget that fact, I think, or some people do at any rate. There are two ideas in regard to education. One is that you can take a few choice spirits who have the money, the time, and the opportunity to go to school, and educate them, and that those people will reach down in some way and draw up the uneducated masses. I have not a great deal of confidence in that theory of education. There is another theory, however, and that is that if you educate the masses, that out of those masses will rise leaders and that those masses will be easily led in the right direction because they have the fundamentals of education in them and they know who to regard as true leaders, and on the other hand how to detect false leaders. Now, that is a better theory than the first, I think, and even better is the sort of education that takes the masses to as high a plane as possible—everyone educated to certain levels—and then higher education for those who have superior opportunities of time and money. And thus we get our leaders and a people who will be easily moved intelligently in the right direction, and really move forward. Now, the work we have to do as educators is largely with the great mass of persons; to uplift those and interest them in education, and even compel them to go to school and get

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this education. We find many people who are indifferent about the education of their own children, and so we have to have compulsory education laws to force the parents to send the children to school.

Now, there is one thing about the education of the deaf as it has been carried on in this country for a great many years, and that is that it is in the lead from a theoretical point of view. The education we are giving our seeing and hearing children is going to be more and more in theory and letter in line with what we have been doing for years and years in the education of the deaf. We are getting to realize that we must make education practical. Here in this institution have been many people who have aided in that direction. Perhaps it will be no disparagement to anyone else to mention one teacher, Mr. Warren Robinson, who has been most deeply and earnestly interested in the progress of deaf people in the industries. It is this industrial idea, with its great possibilities, that first showed its practicability in the education of those who were more or less defective. Education should be useful for everyone, but to those suffering from a handicap it must be useful to enable them to earn a living.

I had the pleasure, some time ago, of visiting the Booker Washington Institution at Tuskegee, and there I found several who were doing splendid work. Now, the work done by them was similar to that done in our schools for the deaf. There was different instruction, of course. They were taught all those things that we regard as intellectual training, but at the same time they were trained to skillful use of the hand so that they could go out from that school and earn a comfortable and honorable living. And no better thing could possibly be done for the negro boys and girls than that. No better thing could possibly be done for the boys and girls who are defective in hearing than to teach them to be self-supporting, self-respecting citizens, able to make their own way comfortably and to sustain those who are dependent upon them. We are coming to recognize this fact in regard to the education of all children. We have had the idea that education was something up in the air, a sort of a mystical, peculiar thing that people could get, and we called it culture, and anything that seemed to have any relation to handwork was not called culture; but I think we are coming to a more satisfactory definition of culture than that; we are coming to understand that one of the best things in life is that fitness and self-reliance that comes from the feeling that one is able to hoe his own row in life and not be dependent on others, rather to have others lean on him. In other words, he will not be a leaner so long as strength and health are his, but he will have ability to take care of others. Now, these are the ideas that are growing in education, and I think we ought to be thankful to teachers of the deaf the country over for the interest they have taken in the industrial education. It is coming into our public schools with tremendous rapidity, but you are in the lead.

The year I had here was a splendid opportunity to study the situation, and I am very sure that in the work in the nine years since I have seen more clearly and more truly the relation between education and life and the needs of the people than if I had never set foot in this institution. When I came in I found it in excellent shape. The man who preceded me, Mr. Swiler, was a splendid executive. This school was running like clockwork, and the pupils were happy and contented to be in the institution. I remember the first fall I was here the children who came back were as delighted as if they had been away from home for six months and were just getting back, and the way their hands flew and their eyes shone I shall never forget; and my own children were loath to leave the institution and go to Madison, for they said it seemed like home to them.

I might say at this point that some time since I received a letter from a leading educator in the State of New York, and he said: "Mr. Cary, I have made the assertion that Wisconsin cares for its deaf people better than any State in the Union, and I have been questioned and put to proof, and you must help me out." And I answered: "I can't boast. I never boast about those things. I will only tell you what we are doing. But we are doing in this State some very good things—some excellent things—for the education of the deaf." Excellent work is being done now in this institution, with its splendid superintendent and his equally able wife—unfortunately indeed absent from this meeting—a great sorrow to them, for they have been counting on it for a long time. The work is carried on under very favorable conditions. I can see many improvements that have been made since I was here nine years ago. Our day schools for the deaf, too, are rendering most valuable service, and we are continually improving them—improving in our teaching force.

Now, I mustn't take longer. I want to say that I am delighted you are here—delighted to welcome you to the State. I hope we shall not have a recurrence of the extreme heat and hope you will have a most enjoyable time here, both as to your meeting and as to the weather and that you will some day favor us by coming to us again. I thank you.

Dr. GALLAUDET. You are now to be welcomed to the city of Delavan by Mr. I. B. Davies, president of the Commercial Club of Delavan.

#### ADDRESS OF MR. I. B. DAVIES.

Mr. President, visiting teachers, home teachers, ladies, and gentlemen, Delavan has never had a prouder day than this that brings this gathering to its beautiful shades and to the hospitality of this institution, of which all Delavan is prone to boast.

We are accustomed to having strangers within our gates. I suppose if the census was taken at the present moment we would find a greater proportion of tourists who have gathered here to escape the heat and to rest and enjoy themselves than we would find residents of the city. However, it is not always we feel the same gratification in entertaining a host of strangers. We are always proud to pay our respects to the educators of the country, and we are aware that the absence of certain senses of the pupils requires a greater degree of skill and patience on the part of the teachers. Hence we take a peculiar pride in welcoming and meeting those who have devoted their lives to this work of educating the deaf. We are proud, too, because we are entertaining at this time those whose names we have known for many years, among the most illustrious of whom is the presiding officer of this convention, and it is my great pleasure to meet him.

It is customary at such times as this to call attention to the places of public interest which there may be for you to visit. I do not know that we have much of which to boast in this connection. Delavan shares pro rata in all the glories of Wisconsin of which you have heard to-night. If you will inspect our city thoroughly, you will find some of the products of the educational forces which have been mentioned. We share in all these glories and have perhaps some natural charms which make a little place attractive. We welcome you to all those things which others have found pleasant, and we hope you will enjoy them to the full. We may not know how to put you in possession of the by-paths which lead to all interesting things. In fact, we have no brackish waters or Mormon oracles, such as some you visited three years ago, nor any pine forests, such as you saw six years ago. We have no mountains, no everglades, no alligators, which some of the southern visitors will perhaps miss when you visit our lakes.

But we do have some charms. I am really proud and exalted in some quiet moments when I look about me in this little place. In our skies we have the blue of Italy, and our artist friends who visit us every summer tell us we have the haze of old England. And our climate is somewhat near perfection, of which fact you have visible and sensible proof, for, after enduring the terrible heat at your various homes the past week, behold on entering our domains the agreeable change.

You will find among us pleasant homes, a modicum of wealth—not that kind of wealth that makes the visitors envious, but the kind that betokens a happy and contented people, a few perhaps of such luxuries and comforts as you might think would tend to create a lack of energy. But after all, this has a place in the economy of the old world. And we trust you will not be too strenuous, and if you do find a spot where lassitude would be pleasant that you will not fail to enjoy that, as well as the other advantages you may find here.

We of Delavan have in a peculiar way a sympathy with this work for the deaf. The way to study a republic, they tell us, is to look at old Athens, a Republic of which we can behold the effect upon the next generation and upon the whole world. This school set in this little community is not so absorbed in the rush of life around it that we can not observe some of the workings of it. The pioneers of this school were the pioneers of Delavan. For two generations the people of Delavan have watched its progress and growth from a modest building to its present size.

Often in Europe are found buildings constructed eleven or twelve hundred years ago, which, broken and battered by hostile armies or the elements, have

been repaired at that styles are are repaired which the beautiful education change, of an in on from

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been repaired in each age in the peculiar style of architecture that prevailed at that time; so that now they stand a peculiar conglomeration of different styles and modes of architecture. Now, when these cathedrals and buildings are repaired they are invariably restored and repaired in the same style in which they were built, preserving the inspiration, the first idea that brought the beautiful building into existence. I sometimes think it is just so with educational movements around us. Methods change, books change, theories change, but, ladies and gentlemen, the inspiration entering into the founding of an institution like this in Delavan, and many of those you represent, goes on from generation to generation, and can not be crushed by any power we know.

It is a matter of keenest regret to-night that one whom we are pleased to call one of our foremost citizens, if not our foremost citizen, having looked forward to this occasion with such great pleasure, and having planned and made arrangements with that indomitable energy characteristic of him, with his no less efficient wife, who has been planning the social and other features of this gathering, is by a higher power prevented from being with us to-night. We think, however, that you will join with us in Delavan in not allowing your regret to interfere with the pleasures that may be yours during your sojourn here, and that you may be cheered by the assurance that comes to us from day to day that it will be only a question of time when all that energy will be restored to the places missing it so much now.

It is recorded that 19 centuries ago one came upon earth who made the dumb speak and caused the whole world to wonder. Some miracles are not performed once and for all. You, and the army to which you belong, are doing what you can in this day to perpetuate in this generation this miracle. We have seen you go into the halls of silence, into the expressionless places and draw young people out, fill them with something like magic, and send them out with a purpose, not helpless and dependent, but just as capable as you and I, able to earn a living and conduct themselves properly in society. I could talk longer on this subject, on which I feel such enthusiasm, but I must not. I hope you will find all that can possibly be found pleasant in this little city, and if you find anything unpleasant it is not the wish of your hosts. For the reasons I have given you have cause to glory in your profession, and we welcome you every one.

Dr. GALLAUDET. We all regret very much the absence of Mr. and Mrs. Walker on this occasion; the regret is felt by every one present. Mr. Walker was to have spoken at this point of the exercises. He has asked Dr. Dobyns to read this paper, and Dr. Dobyns needs no introduction to you.

Mr. President, ladies, and gentlemen of the convention, for nearly three years I have pictured as the consummation of my official hopes and the fruition of my professional ambition the time at which I could welcome this magnificent body of men and women to this school. I felt it as a personal compliment as well as an honor to the Badger State when your executive committee selected Delavan for the 1911 session of the convention. You will, therefore, understand with what keen regret I am obliged to extend this welcome by proxy. I trust, however, you will believe me sincere when I say that you are just as warmly welcome in reality as though I could extend the greeting in person. Indeed, I have more opportunity to think of the friendships and associations of other meetings, so that this one now actually occupies a larger place in my thought than it could possibly have done had my recent days been filled with the detailed work for your reception. Especially do I welcome you to the convention spirit which can only exist where are met large-minded men and women actuated by motives impersonal and altruistic. May such be the spirit and atmosphere of this convention throughout all its deliberations.

Above all I shall be unhappy if it appears that the peculiar disasters that have fallen upon my household shall in any sense cast a gloom over the meeting. It seemed a well-nigh crushing blow when a few weeks ago I was obliged to leave Mrs. Walker, whose interest in this meeting is not second to my own, in a Chicago hospital, knowing that she could not return to meet you. A few days later my stenographer, Miss Passage, who is an ardent horsewoman, sustained a serious sprain by reason of a fall with her horse. This may not seem so serious, but, since she could not work the typewriter, I had no way of retracting the invitations to this meeting. About the same time Miss Hammond, who helped vigorously after Mrs. Walker's departure, took some sort of false

step and turned her ankle. One more straw was added when the daughter of the household revealed a stomach that no one knew she possessed and because of it was incapacitated for two or three days. The situation was really becoming alarming and I sent out a hurry-up call for everybody to refrain from engaging in all hazardous pursuits until the convention was over. About that time the influence of an old story told me in my boyhood days manifested itself. I remember with what admiration I heard about a hostess who, upon observing that one of her guests at the table had accidentally broken a plate, immediately broke her own in an effort to make the guest feel more at ease. It seemed to me that I owed something of this kind to Mrs. Walker, and that, since she had been obliged to submit to the surgeon's knife the very least I could do in the chivalric spirit of an ideal husband was to do likewise. Really, it is a pretty contest to count the chances and watch the effect of surgical, medical, and nurse skill, feeling confident all the time that one can overcome the adverse chances. Of course, in a kind of way the Walkers of Wisconsin will hereafter be somewhat incapacitated in their power to do everything that may be expected of them. We have really lost too many organs ever again to have the highest orchestral powers, but we have never shone in a musical direction, anyway.

The great Power by whom it was written long ago that "every valley shall be exalted and every mountain and hill be made low" is still working out its tremendous law of compensation, and really this convention is getting in a bad way. Too many Walkers! It is not surprising that nature herself has arisen to eliminate two of them from the deliberations of this meeting. With what great concern and sometimes chagrin different Walkers have had ascribed to them remarks of the others! My heart has pulsed with pride to have some convention member give me credit for voicing some bit of wisdom expressed by Walker of South Carolina, or Walker of New Jersey, or Walker of Louisiana, or Walker of Florida, or Walker of Tennessee, or the other Walker of South Carolina; but I have been correspondingly shamed by having credited to me some fool remark made by Walker of South Carolina, or Walker of New Jersey, or Walker of Louisiana, or Walker of Florida, or Walker of Tennessee, or the other Walker of South Carolina. We shall all be relieved of a number of embarrassing situations because of my thoughtfulness and consideration.

For a time I worried, fearing you might not be properly fed, but all that has fallen away. I have learned that one may go for many days without food and still survive; in fact survive better because of the lack of it. If, therefore, you are insufficiently fed and do not receive what you ask for, do not worry; you will be no permanent loser thereby. I even had some worry over so insignificant a thing as a water barrel, fearing you might not be able to secure proper refreshment of this sort. But there again my own experience teaches me that one can get along in fair comfort for three or four days without cold water. And, perchance, your beds are not the downy ones of ease to which you are accustomed, and if sleep does not come promptly or stay by you abidingly, that also is insignificant. Neither food nor water nor sleep are really essential. The really great thing, the thing that is worth while amidst all these discomforts, is to hold within yourself the spirit of joyful buoyancy that sees the fun in all disasters. Therefore, I have no apology to make whether you hunger or thirst or waken.

Some more important matters have really given me serious concern. When Supt. Bangs wrote that any old place would do for him provided I put him with a good-natured person or deaf man because of his snoring proclivities, I could not refrain from admiring his frankness, but questioned my ability to find a person deaf enough or good-natured enough to face the situation. This condition was intensified when Supt. Clark, of Michigan, wrote substantially the same thing. I hope these two gentlemen have been put together that they may neutralize each other.

I have been obliged also to disappoint one good eastern member of the convention, who wrote me long ago that she wanted a "nice quiet room" by herself. I told her the only rooms we reserved at all for a small number of people were those for married folks and if she would find a husband before the convention time she could have one of those rooms. Now, at the last minute, when it is too late for me to do anything, she writes she has not been able to meet this condition. I hope the gallantry of the convention members will not fall me in this case.

If in these paragraphs I have succeeded in revealing to you the truth that personal disasters are not, after all, overwhelming, and to express the hope

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that your convention may progress with all that serious good nature and buoyancy becoming such an occasion, then my purpose is fulfilled. You are welcome, indeed, to Wisconsin. Institutions are greater than individuals. Ideas are bigger than men, and to the institution and to the convention ideas you are heartily welcomed.

Dr. DOBYNS. Continuing to represent my absent sick friend, it becomes my pleasure and honor to introduce the first speaker of those who are to respond to those cordial and beautiful and historical and political and educational addresses to which we have listened. It is my pleasure to introduce to you not only the president of this convention but the only president it has ever had. Our convention is 16 years old, and our distinguished and beloved friend, Dr. Gallaudet, of Washington, still occupies that position. I present to you Dr. Gallaudet, president of this convention.

Dr. GALLAUDET. Ladies and gentlemen and friends, I must make one or two corrections in some of the remarks that have been made, but perhaps may make them later. And at the outset I want to say that we certainly all of us extend our very hearty appreciation of the warm welcome we have had here, and we express our gratification that the welcome is not quite as warm as it would have been if our meeting had begun on Monday of this week. And this in spite of what has been said by one of our speakers, claiming that Wisconsin has a cinch on good weather and that the fact that we have been relieved from the intense heat of a day or two ago is due to our having come into this country. But I insist if this meeting had taken place the first of the week, instead of meeting comfortably here we would all be sweltering with the heat. We are here to-night under very favorable circumstances, and for this we will thank the Weather Bureau and the Wisconsin people.

I am going to ask you to bear with me while I give a little personal history, which may go to show that there are reasons why the humble individual who now addresses you should speak to you for the convention on this occasion, other than the fact that he is at this moment the presiding officer of this convention. I stand before you this evening in the venerable capacity of the oldest member of the convention, oldest in years and oldest in term of membership, for my membership in the convention began 55 years ago, Dr. Dobyns, when I, just out of college, attended the convention which was held in Staunton, Va., in 1856, and my membership has been continuous up to the present time. In 1868, after a suspension for a few years of the meetings of the convention on account of the Civil War, measures were taken at Washington at the conference of principals to revive the convention, and an executive committee was created at that time, of which I had the honor to be made chairman. It has fallen to my lot to continue in that office of chairman from 1868 up to the present time. It is true in 1895, 16 years ago, the convention adopted a constitution and by-laws and sought and obtained from Congress a charter. I then had the honor of being elected president and have continued to be until the present time. I hope, then, that our friends in Wisconsin will believe that it is entirely right that this meeting should be addressed by one who is so old in the service and so much of whose life has been given to the work, one who is about to lay down the harness and who has already laid it down in several respects, but who still believes that he has some spirit left in him to

stand up and advocate the best things for the instruction of the deaf and dumb in the world.

I believe I speak for all when I say we accept your hospitality with many thanks, and we expect to enjoy ourselves here to the full. I will not take any more time for any speech making, for there are others here who will speak to represent the convention.

We are pleased to have heard the warm words of welcome from those who have given them.

I have the pleasure now of introducing an old friend, one whose record in the profession is most honorable, who will give the response for the North, Dr. J. N. Tate, of Minnesota.

#### RESPONSE TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME—FOR THE NORTH, DR. J. N. TATE.

Mr. Chairman, ladies, and gentlemen, while these welcoming addresses were being given us in such graceful terms, with hearts so full of interest in us and in the work to which we have devoted our lives, a change of feeling stole gradually over me. When I entered the hall I felt something like we all do sometimes when we use the expression "We're here because we're here." This feeling I had. After listening to the gracious words of the representative of the chief executive of this State, and to the also gracious words of the representative of educational Wisconsin; to the address given on behalf of the business men's organization, and to the paper read by the vice president of this association from our friend, the superintendent of this institution, I felt like revising my former attitude and saying not only "We're here because we're here," but "We are all glad we are here." And after I had listened to the address of the gifted leader of deaf-mute education in this country, a man whose facility of speech, whose bigness of heart, and whose experience have made him invaluable in the profession, a man who has been president of the only college for the deaf in the world, I felt very much like saying, "Let us put out the fire and call out the dogs and move on with the work of this convention." Enough has been said. Still, a simple duty has been put to me, the duty of responding on behalf of the North to these speeches of welcome. You know that in every fine, heavy piece of music there are harmonies that seem to verge on discord, heavier and deeper than the other notes. After this fine symphony of sentiment, during which I listened but failed to discover any harmonies that verged upon discord, I feel that to complete this splendid symphony I must be willing to sacrifice myself by affording the discordant notes.

In bringing to you the greetings of the North we bring rather more to you than do either representatives of the South, the East, or the West. We bring with us the north half of this continent of ours. We refer to the Dominion of Canada. There are representatives of this country in our presence, and we welcome them. You know Canada comprises a greater number of square miles than does our own United States. We are proud of our big sister and we sometimes almost wish she would flirt with Uncle Sam, though he is a relative. Perhaps she would be tempted to do so but for the rigid mother finger across the sea. So in bringing the greetings of the North to the members from the fast developing sunny South, to the members from the staid—and, shall we say, self-satisfied—East, to the members from the attractive plains of the West, and of the Pacific slope, the land of the apple and orange, I would add that we join you in the work of this convention. I never stand in the presence of an audience composed of teachers of the deaf that I am not moved with the strongest sentiment. You remember the words of Phillips Brooks that "No man has come to true greatness who has not felt in some degree that his life belongs to the race, and that what God gives him He gives him for mankind." My friends, we are engaged in the sublimest work that ever occupied the hands, the heads, the hearts of any people. We are building men and women for time and for eternity.

Perhaps not many of the members of this audience have recalled the fact that this is the fiftieth anniversary of the beginning of the tremendous struggle between the North and South. Most of my audience were born since that struggle began. But now that it has been so long ended it will suffice to say in the words of another, "Americans were victorious in every battle." One

glorious fact remains: However discouraging the outcome of that conquest was to the vanquished we are to-day a united people. We rank among the leading powers of the whole earth. We have taken up the refrain of Longfellow, "Let the dead past bury its dead. Act, act with the living present; heart within and God o'erhead." This was perhaps the bloodiest struggle that ever stained the escutcheon of a civilized people, and it started with a war of words. You remember the famous debate between Robert Tombs and Alexander H. Stevens, of Georgia, in which Mr. Tombs said in the Senate, "The time may yet come when I shall call the roll of my slaves at the foot of Bunker Hill Monument." Tombs, the massive, the brainy, the eloquent! You remember how this statement fired the North. You remember equally well what the diminutive, the modest, the no less brilliant, the patriotic Stevens said when South Carolina threatened to secede. These are his words: "Countrymen, I tell you frankly, candidly, and earnestly, I do not think they ought." At that time there was a war of words; words charged with bold assumption; words uttered in bitterness. My friends, we educators of the deaf are engaged in a war of words, words charged with bitterness, sometimes characterized by bold assumption. And, my friends, I repeat the words of the great Stevens, I tell you frankly, candidly, and earnestly, I do not think they ought to be uttered in bitterness. Let us rather seek to inspire those under our care to attain to the ideal defined by Phillips Brooks, "No man has come to true greatness who has not felt in some degree that his life belongs to the race, and that what God gives him He gives him for mankind."

In acknowledging the gracious words of the representatives of Wisconsin and Delavan in their welcome to us we feel that we can do it but feebly. We thank you. And in bringing the greetings of the North to this convention we also would add, "Dwell together in peace;" "Little children love one another."

Dr. GALLAUDET. It gives me great pleasure to introduce as the next speaker, Dr. William N. Burt, who will speak for the East.

#### ADDRESS OF WELCOME FOR THE EAST BY DR. WILLIAM N. BURT.

It is my pleasant duty to speak for the East this evening. I consider it a great honor to represent this section of our country, yet I can hardly be called an eastern man. My home is in Pittsburgh. I live in what may be called the suburbs of the East, yet near enough to enjoy the reflected light of that great and glorious section of our country. Pittsburgh, while not an eastern city, has claims to distinction peculiarly its own. It is noted far and near for its glorious sunshine. Tourists, as they pass back and forth from one part of this continent to another, stop off at Pittsburgh to enjoy the beautiful sunsets. It is also noted for its millionaires. I will say that at present there are none among the teachers, although some of us have hopes of some day becoming millionaires. I would also say that it is noted for having within its bounds the home of one of our most famous multimillionaires, who, in his mad rush to die poor, is lavishing his millions upon the libraries of the country and upon the educational institutions of Pittsburgh. I could speak a long time on the subject of Pittsburgh; could perhaps say as much about it as has been said about Delavan, but modesty prevents.

The great section that I speak for to-night abounds in wonderful educational institutions, which are not only the pride of the East but of the entire nation. Harvard, Yale, Johns Hopkins, Princeton, and a host of universities and colleges hardly less noted have their homes in the East.

Nor is it less gloriously associated with the world, for within its bounds were the homes of Emerson, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Whittier, Bryant, and other writers who did so much for literature. But I shall not dwell on these, nor shall I dwell on its colonial and revolutionary history. I shall speak of things more modern. My theme is the eastern institutions for the deaf. If they differ in any respect from the institutions in other parts of the country it is in the fact that there a little more stress is laid upon the oral method of instruction. The four institutions in my own State are oral schools. Northampton, Lexington Avenue, Providence, and Rome are pure oral schools. Rochester makes no use of signs, but seems to get along pretty well with the use of manual spelling and the oral method. I might say, for the benefit of the audience who know nothing about teaching the deaf, that there are two methods, known, respectively, as the oral and the combined method. There used to be considerable antagonism between the two, but I hardly think there is now. It is said that some of our

teachers went to extremes in their antipathy to the use of signs; would not even permit their children to read the signboards on the king's highway for fear they might become addicted to the use of signs. I heard of one teacher who always paid her bills with money because she did not care to sign a check. Another teacher, who required her children to memorize hymns for Sabbath-school use, was horrified to find that a member of her class had chosen the familiar hymn "Watchman, tell us of the night; what its signs of promise are." She promptly changed it to "Watchman, tell us of the night; what do the celestial indications promise?"

I think we are living in an age that might be called the children's age. There is no limit to the amount of money spent in their behalf, no matter whether deaf or hearing. The best is none too good for them. Last week I visited a school situated within two or three squares of my own home. It contained a beautiful auditorium and library, laboratories, rooms for manual training of the boys, and a whole department for the industrial training of girls in cooking, washing, ironing, millinery, and sewing; a bank for teaching boys and girls business forms, a dark room with appliances for teaching photography; a room equipped with typewriting machines for instruction in stenography; a gymnasium with individual lockers, swimming pool and shower baths. I was amazed to see the amount of money that had been spent in that school, and yet there was not a single protest from the taxpayers in that community. Nor are our institutions for the deaf behind in their facilities for the symmetrical training of our pupils. The question is sometimes asked, Are the boys and girls any better off than their parents for this lavish expenditure of money? The answer to that question is this: The parents lived in the nineteenth century, and our boys and girls are living in the twentieth century, and they need all these appliances to prepare them for twentieth century living, and the fathers recognize this fact and are perfectly willing to pay the taxes that are necessary to provide the very best schools possible.

The watchword in the field of material things is "efficiency." A few men who recently made investigations in the industrial world discovered that there was a great loss of energy in almost all the productive employment of men, and thereby aroused the people simply because they were ready to be aroused. It was shown that there was an expenditure of force and energy that was altogether out of proportion to the work accomplished. Now, without going any further into that subject, I may say that the loss of energy may apply to some extent to the education of the deaf. I do not think we have seen the best methods of teaching. The methods pursued in our schools now are not the same exactly as were pursued 20, 30, 40, and 50 years ago, and I think they will change and improve still more. I think the efficiency of the teacher will increase every year, but how, I do not know. I do not profess to be a prophet. But I do not think anyone will welcome it more than the teachers of the deaf themselves.

Now, a word to the ladies and gentlemen of Delavan who honor us with their presence to-night. The hour is late, but I do not feel deep sorrow for you. I would like to "even up," if possible, with one of the statesmen of your Commonwealth, who, when he makes a speech, takes no note of time. I refer to Senator La Follette. Last year he was invited to speak to a convention of teachers in Pittsburgh. He was told that the room would have to be vacated at 5 o'clock in order that preparation might be made for a concert in the evening. He began speaking at 3 o'clock, and at 5 he vacated the room by inviting them out on the veranda to hear him finish. I have no desire to emulate the worthy Senator, although I have the highest respect for him. I thank you, ladies and gentlemen, for your attention this evening.

DR. GALLAUDET. We are happy to have with us this evening one of the veterans in the work of teaching the deaf, who has spent in the work only little less time than your humble servant. I have the great pleasure of introducing my old friend from Georgia, Mr. W. O. Connor.

#### MR. W. O. CONNOR'S RESPONSE FOR THE SOUTH.

Having been born in the South of a long line of Southern ancestors, where my life has been spent among her patriotic people, the land of cotton and the sugar cane, where you are fanned by the soothing breezes laden with the health-giving aroma of the long-leaf pine, lulled to sleep by the songs of the whippoorwill and the katydid, only to be awakened by the glorious melody of



the mocking bird as he pours forth his matin song, I certainly feel honored in being assigned the duty of speaking for the South. We of the South are proud to be here and know we will have a pleasant and profitable meeting in this hospitable school and city.

Something tells me that I should not let this opportunity pass without making an effort to tell you something of the real South and her people—things which you do not find in the histories—and I hope you will bear with me patiently while I attempt to do this, though you may not entirely agree with me. I desire to show you that the South has always been alive, and is alive to-day. I have heard it said that the South wanted Southern histories for her children to study. This is a great mistake; but we do want truthful histories, without a Southern or a Northern bias, and when the truth is told there is glory enough to spread all over this great land from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from the Gulf to the Lakes of the North.

For instance, it was suggested to me that I introduce into the Georgia school a nice little primary history written in Boston. If I remember aright, something like 40 pages of this book were devoted to the settlement of Plymouth, while only about 7 pages were taken up in telling of the settlement of Jamestown, and practically nothing was said of the settlement of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, or Mississippi. I think it told of Putnam riding down some stone steps in trying to get away from the British, but it told nothing of Nancy Hart, for whom Georgia has named a county and a town, who captured six British soldiers single handed and alone. Did you ever see anything of Nancy Hart in history, and can you blame us for excluding such one-sided books from our schools?

We realize the fact that the South is looked upon as a kind of a benighted region, inhabited by a sort of semicivilized people. Why, as great an authority as the Encyclopedia Britannica says that but for the reflected light of New England civilization the Southern people would have long ago lapsed into the condition of the people of Mexico and of the Antilles.

When in the course of human events it became necessary to offer resistance to the encroachment upon our liberties by the English Government, where was this resistance most pronounced? At Alamance, N. C., a battle was fought with the British, May 16, 1771, four years before Lexington. Did you ever read of the battle of Alamance in your histories? A declaration of independence was passed on May 20, 1775, at Charlotte, N. C., more than a year before the Fourth of July Declaration at Philadelphia. Did you ever read of this declaration in your school histories?

Patrick Henry, a Southerner, had perhaps more to do with firing the hearts of the people to resistance to England than any other one influence.

Gen. Hugh Waddell and Gen. John Ashe successfully resisted the landing of British stamps at old Brunswick in 1766, seven years before the Boston Tea Party.

At the instance of Virginia, the first Continental Congress met in Philadelphia, September 5, 1774, at which every colony except Georgia was represented.

Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, was selected to preside over that Congress; Richard Henry Lee, afterwards "Light Horse Harry," another Virginian and the father of our Robert E. Lee, introduced into the Congress the resolution declaring our independence of the mother country; and Thomas Jefferson, another Virginian, wrote the Declaration of Independence. And when we came to celebrate the Centennial of that immortal occasion in 1876, in Philadelphia, it was a Southern man, Sidney Lanier, who was chosen to write the poem for the opening, and Samuel F. Miller, another Southerner, who was the chosen orator for that imposing occasion.

When hostilities actually began, George Washington, a Virginian, was selected to command the Army, and James Nicholson, another Virginian, was placed in charge of naval affairs. After about five years of effort to gain aid from France, John Laurens, a young South Carolinian, was sent over to France, and in less than three months the French fleet appeared off Norfolk, and Cornwallis's surrender was the result. Did you ever read anything in your school histories of Laurens?

James Madison, of Virginia, wrote the Constitution; George Washington was the first President under it, and John Marshall, the great jurist, interpreted it.

The first school for the deaf was at Manchester, Va.

Virginia gave to the Union the vast territory now covered by the States of Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin; North Carolina

gave Tennessee, and Georgia gave Alabama and Mississippi, all without compensation.

The South has added every foot of territory to the United States except Alaska. Louisiana was purchased during the administration of Thomas Jefferson, in 1803, and Florida during that of Monroe, in 1819.

The first white men that crossed the continent and penetrated the wilds of that section where rolls the Oregon were Lewis and Clark, both Southern men.

The surveys upon which were practically built the three great railroads that cross the continent, the Northern, the Union, and the Southern Pacific, were made under the administration of Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, as Secretary of War.

Southern men colonized Texas and gave us an empire, and later the western boundary was pushed outward to the Pacific.

In military affairs, the two heroes of the War of 1812 were both Southern men, Gens. Jackson and Scott, and it is almost literally true that while the New Englanders, who opposed the war, were holding a secession convention in Hartford, Jackson was mauling the life out of the British with Southern soldiers at New Orleans.

In the Mexican War, Scott and Taylor were the heroes, and about three-fourths of their soldiers were Southern men.

In the Civil War, Lincoln, who engineered the Union cause to a successful termination by the downfall of the Confederacy at Appomattox, was from Kentucky; George H. Thomas, "the Rock of Chickamauga," that some Northern writer said was the only Union general that never made a mistake nor lost a battle, was a Virginian; and the Admiral, Farragut, was from Tennessee. While Grant was not a Southerner, his wife was, and Sherman spent most of his life in the South.

When the little 1,000-ton Confederate wooden man-of-war, the *Alabama*, in a two years' cruise, had wiped the commerce of the United States from the high seas of the world to that extent that it took 40 years to recover from it, finally met her fate and went down in a blaze of glory off Cherbourg, France, it was at the hands of the *Kearsarge*, commanded by Winslow, a North Carolinian.

The North had no Daniel Boone, no Davy Crockett, no Sam Houston. The Nation's idols, as witness their familiar nicknames, were all Southerners by birth—Light Horse Harry, Old Hickory, Great Scott, Rough and Ready, and Honest Abe.

In commerce, the Southern colonies, with a population of 1,200,000 exported produce, during the 10 years preceding the Revolution, valued at \$42,000,000, while New England, New York, and Pennsylvania, with a population of 1,300,000, exported \$9,000,000. In the same decade Georgia and South Carolina exported twice as much as all New England, New York, and Pennsylvania.

President Taft, several weeks ago, in a speech to the Southern Commercial Congress at Atlanta, stated that the figures of the last census showed that the South had made greater progress than any other section in the Union.

Georgia, last year, built more miles of good road than any other State in the entire Union. Every day that the sun sets it sets upon 10 miles more of good roads than it did the day before.

Last year the South yielded \$2,600,000,000 from its factories, \$2,660,000,000 from its farms, \$1,000,000,000 from its cotton, \$440,000,000 from its forests, \$200,000,000 from its stock, \$175,000,000 from its dairy products, \$170,000,000 from its poultry, and \$150,000,000 from its fruits and vegetables.

It has 2,500 miles of coast line, 72,007 miles of railroads, 16,000 miles of navigable streams, 850 cotton mills, 840 cottonseed-oil mills, 125 blast furnaces, 2,500 lumber mills, 490,000,000 tons of coal, 10,000,000,000 tons of iron ore, and 9,000,000 horsepower in its streams.

Georgia was the first colony to prohibit slavery, but King George overruled it. Virginia was the first State to pass laws against slavery.

The first orphans' asylum in America, if not in the world, was at Savannah Ga., and it flourishes to-day.

The first circulating library in America was at Annapolis.

The first Sunday school in America was at Savannah.

The first native Methodist itinerant was a Southern man, William Watters.

The first college in the world to confer diplomas on women was the Wesleyan Female College at Macon, Ga., and the lady who received the first diploma still lives, Mrs. Catherine Benson.

The first college founded by a State was at Athens, Ga.

The first State school of technology for boys was established in Atlanta, and to-day ranks with the best in the Union.

The first State normal and industrial college for girls was established at Milledgeville, Ga.

The first long railroad (138 miles) in the world runs from Charleston, S. C., to Augusta, Ga., and was built by South Carolinians in 1829, and the first locomotive built in America was built for this road.

The first steamship to cross the Atlantic Ocean was the *Savannah*, that sailed from Savannah, and was a Savannah enterprise, and the man who first completely described the Gulf Stream and who mapped out the currents of the seas of the world was Matthew F. Maury, of Alabama. And the inventor of the first sounding rod to reach the deepest parts of the ocean was John M. Brooke, of Virginia, this rod being still in use. The man who, about 1840, figured out mathematically what should be the lines of a vessel which would meet with the least resistance in the water, and upon which lines practically all of the ocean greyhounds of to-day are built, was Maj. James Hamilton Couper, of St. Simons Island, Ga.

William Longstreet ran a steamboat on the Savannah River at Augusta, Ga., several years before Fulton ran the *Clermont* on the Hudson.

Francis R. Goulding, the author of those charming books for boys, "The Young Marooners" and "Marooner's Island," made and used in his home at Kingston, Ga., a sewing machine with the eye in the point of the needle years before Howe perfected his.

The first man to use sulphuric ether to produce anesthesia in surgical operations was Dr. Crawford W. Long, of Jefferson, Ga., and Georgia will place his name in Statuary Hall, in Washington, as one of her greatest men.

For bloodless method of surgery in shoulder and hip joint operations, the world is indebted to Dr. John A. Wyeth, of Alabama.

The greatest American naturalist was Audubon, of Louisiana.

The greatest American tragedian, Edwin Booth, was from Maryland.

The greatest American dramatist, Augustin Daly, was from North Carolina, and the greatest American musician, Gottschalk, was from Louisiana.

The founder and organizer of the United States Naval Academy and the builder of the first ironclad, which revolutionized the naval construction of the world, was Franklin Buchanan, of Maryland.

The constructor of the United States Naval Observatory at Washington, one of the best in the world, was James Melville Gillis, a southerner.

The inventor of the Gatling gun was a North Carolinian, Richard R. Gatling; and an Alabamian made the Parrott gun effective, Dr. John B. Read.

And I could go on, but I think enough has been said to show you that the South has had a considerable share in the formation and in the building up of the Government, of which we are all alike proud, and I know that the mere you read and investigate the more you will realize this fact.

DR. GALLAUDET. Our words of response this evening are not all to be from the older men of the convention. I have the pleasure of introducing one of our younger men on whose career I have looked with a good deal of interest. He represents the West—Mr. Driggs, of Utah.

#### MR. F. M. DRIGGS'S RESPONSE FOR THE WEST.

Mr. President and fellow teachers, you may think there is little left for the West, but it is not so. Mine is a great responsibility, for I represent the greatest part of the United States. Don't you know that in the building up of the great western country we went to the East, to the North, and to the South and selected the very best people of these sections and took them West to grow up with the country. Why, then, shouldn't the West be the greatest part of the United States? If you want to see the real progressive part of our Nation come West.

What did Uncle Sam tell you when he took the census last year? He told you that some of the Western States had grown more than 100 per cent in population in the last decade. He said also that every Western State had added 50 or more per cent to its population since 1900. Where, my friends, are there any Eastern, Southern, or Northern States that have done as well?

Where, fellow teachers, are there any schools for the deaf in the United States that are spending more money per capita than the schools in some of our Western States? Where are there any combined schools teaching more children to speak than our western schools? Where are there any schools more than 1,500 miles from Chicago that bring five teachers and a superintendent to this convention? And, finally, where is there a superintendent, North, or East, or South, with money in his pocket to help all of his teachers to come to the convention?

We appreciate most heartily the kind invitation that has been extended to the West and all of us to come to this convention. I feel as though I could speak with a little more appreciation than anyone else, because I have just gone through the experience and I know what it means to prepare for and entertain a convention. I think I can doubly appreciate the feeling of Supt. and Mrs. Walker, who are unable to be with us to-night, for Mr. and Mrs. Driggs, of Utah, have just had \$1,200 worth of the same experience they are going through.

We people of the West believe in conventions, because we feel that much good results from our getting together, from exchange of thoughts and ideas. This rubbing against each other brightens and sharpens us and takes us home filled with enthusiasm, which is so much to be desired. Like the diamond, which, having had the rough corners ground off, becomes so much more valuable a gem.

After all, fellow teachers, it doesn't matter where you are or what class you teach, whether you are an oralist of a manualist, the matter of education, as Dr. Samuel Hamilton once said, may be summed up in these words: "Effort educates." The teacher's business is to lead the child, to direct the child, and to inspire the child to put forth the effort and educate himself. If the child doesn't put forth the effort, doesn't do the work, the Lord knows he will never educate himself. And if the teacher fails to inspire the child to put forth the effort to do the work, the Lord also knows that that teacher isn't worth very much. So, teachers, while you are here fill yourselves with all the good things the East, the North, and the South have to offer, then come West and inspire our deaf children to put forth sufficient effort to educate themselves.

Dr. N. F. WALKER. I am sure that the members who have met here for this occasion have all been saddened, and greatly saddened, by the absence of the superintendent and the matron of this school. I desire to move the appointment of a committee to present the love and regards of this convention to Superintendent and Mrs. Walker and regret at their enforced absence.

Motion duly seconded, voted on, and carried.

The Chair appointed Dr. N. F. Walker, of South Carolina; Dr. Robert Patterson, of Ohio; and Mr. Harris Taylor, of New York, as the committee.

The program for the evening having been carried out in full, a motion to adjourn having been made, seconded, and voted upon, the convention was declared adjourned until 9 a. m. Friday morning, July 7.

A pleasant reception held in the chapel of the school closed the exercises of the first evening.



## NORMAL SECTION.

CONDUCTED BY DR. J. R. DOBYNS.

FRIDAY, JULY 7, 1911.

## MORNING SESSION.

## PROGRAM FOR SECOND DAY.

9 a. m. Called to order by the president.

Paper: "How best to prepare the deaf for life," by Mr. J. W. Jones, Ohio.

9.20 a. m. Discussion by Mr. A. H. Walker, Florida.

9.30 a. m. President's address, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet.

10 a. m. Conference on "Reading, including best list of books for school reading," directed by Miss S. Frances Woods, Illinois.

11.30 a. m. Conference on "How to use the map in geography teaching," directed by Mr. J. S. Morrison, Missouri.

12 m. Conference on "The notebook as a school help," directed by Mr. J. S. Long, Iowa.

8 p. m. Address: "Idols and Ideals," by Prof. R. L. Lyman, of the University of Wisconsin.

The convention was called to order by President Gallaudet at 9.25 a. m. At the request of the president, Rev. James H. Cloud, of St. Louis, Mo., opened the session with prayer.

Announcement was made that Prof. W. A. Cochrane, of the Wisconsin school, and Prof. H. E. Day, of Gallaudet College, would act as assistant secretaries.

This session of the convention was given over to the Normal Section, and, in the absence of Mr. E. W. Walker, who was to have presided, Dr. Dobyns acted as chairman.

The first on the program was a paper by J. W. Jones, of Ohio, as follows:

## HOW BEST TO PREPARE THE DEAF FOR LIFE.

By Mr. J. W. JONES, of Ohio.

All great causes find their impulses in certain great principles. Education being the greatest of all causes must likewise be founded upon principle. It is fortunate that since the beginning of civilization these principles have stood out clear and have had their advocates from the greatest intellects of the world. We need go back no further than the schools of Pythagoras, Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, although much pleasure would be found in antedating in our research these great philosophers. That was indeed a great period in which these men lived. But very little has been added to the store of philosophy which they set in motion. It is true that customs and conditions have wonderfully changed, that the scope of education is much wider, and that the common people are the very ones for whom public education is provided in place of the aristocracy, as in their day, but the principles they advocated live on. Their expression was "a sound mind in a sound body," with a full appreciation of the highest ideals. Strange that such commendable doctrines should ever have passed into a dormant state, but they did, and with occasional and small manifestations of life, they remained so for almost 2,000 years. They finally found, however, in the latter part of the sixteenth and first half of the seventeenth century, great and worthy champions. These were numerous, but the leaders were such men as Roger Ascham, John Amos Comenius, John Locke, Jean Jacques Rousseau, Immanuel Kant, and John Henry Pestalozzi.

In a short address like this it is impossible to discuss all of these great characters and what they represent in the world of education. For our special purposes we turn to Rousseau, who set forth in such a beautiful way the ideal education in the story of the ideal boy, Emile. We might not agree in all re-

spects touching the many phases and doctrines of this great philosopher, but we are all agreed, I am sure, in his cardinal principle. Let us hear it in the following quotation found in the outset of his work in book 1:

"In the natural order of things, all men being equal, the vocation common to all is the state of manhood; and whoever is well trained for that can not fulfill badly any vocation which depends upon it. Whether my pupil be destined for the army, the church, or the bar, matters little to me. Before he can think of adopting the vocation of his parents, nature calls upon him to be a man. How to live is the business I wish to teach him. On leaving my hands he will not, I admit, be a magistrate, a soldier, or a priest; first of all he will be a man. All that a man ought to be he can be, at need, as well as anyone else can. Fortune will in vain alter his position, for he will always occupy his own.

"Our real study is that of the state of man. He among us who best knows how to bear the good and evil fortunes of this life is, in my opinion, the best educated; whence it follows that true education consists less in precept than in practice. We begin to instruct ourselves when we begin to live; our first teacher is our nurse. For this reason the word 'education' had among the ancients another meaning, which we no longer attach to it; it signified nutriment.

"To live is not merely to breathe; it is to act. It is to make use of our organs, of our senses, of our faculties, of all the powers which bear witness to us of our existence. He who has lived most is not he who has numbered the most years, but he who has been most truly conscious of what life is. A man may have himself buried at the age of a hundred years who died from the hour of his birth. He would have gained something by going to his grave in youth, if up to that time he had only lived."

We are, therefore, to consider the education of children to be men and women, and not to be carpenters, shoemakers, domestic scientists, and dress-makers.

I believe in this philosophy. As one grows older in experience he sees more and more that there is only one thing much to be desired in life, and that is character. To it all other things will be added. The Good Book says it: "Seek ye first the kingdom of heaven and all these things will be added unto you." Christ doubtless had in mind character. I wish to base the deaf child's education upon it when I am to give him the "best training for life." A character that will not lie, steal, deceive, or defraud. A character that will toe the mark in meeting every financial obligation and fulfilling punctually every promise. A character that will love the right and defend it under all circumstances. A character that is morally and physically clean and that will not tolerate contamination. A character full of devotion to God and a regard for his fellow men. A character with approved habits in every respect. A character that is full of hope, zeal, and enthusiasm for his work when chosen. What a great character this! And then if its possessor has a sound, rugged, well-developed physique, acquainted with the laws of health and with the habit of observing them, what a good start on the road to the best living.

But it is suggested that the ideal is too high, that heredity and home environment will prohibit its realization. No ideal is too high, and in a properly organized school for the deaf heredity and home environment may be overcome except where their manifestations appear in physical and mental weakness, and even there they may be much changed for the better. I know that the schools are already doing much in this regard and that we are proud of the many bright and honorable pupils who go from them. But were we satisfied with the results of our work this subject would not be suggested for discussion. The question, then, is wherein may our work be improved, and how?

I believe in a high personnel for officers, teachers, and employees. In fact, the influence of these people upon the pupils of a deaf school can not be over-estimated and the standard required can not be placed too high. It is surely not asking too much of candidates when they are required to be free from the use of bad language, exhibition of bad tempers, and from the use of intoxicants or tobacco in any form. It matters not what position the candidate may be seeking; the same high standard should be raised and he should be required to come up to it before his application is considered.

I believe also that he should have well-defined and well-understood opinions on all moral and religious questions. Our pupils come in very close contact with those on the pay roll, and from the fact of their position as officer, teacher, or employee they become in a sense a model for these pupils. These people

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make up the environment in which our pupils live. Whatever habits, good or bad, are observed in their conduct from day to day will eventually find expression in the conduct and lives of the pupils. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance that our schools be so organized as to surround our pupils with the richest and best influences.

The way to overcome a bad environment is to substitute a good one. The way to break up a bad habit is to substitute a good habit. The way for the children to grow up to be good men and women is to live in a good environment and to be taught to cultivate the best habits.

Not the least of these is the habit of caring for property. In our institutional schools too much is often done for our pupils which they might be taught to do for themselves, and they are given too freely of the best things of the state without even the price of such an appreciation as will insure the proper use and care. They therefore look lightly upon the destruction of a piece of property, thinking it can and will be replaced without any sacrifice upon their part. They therefore became careless of property, not understanding its value, and careless of clothes not bought by themselves. Would it not be better for these pupils to be taught the meaning of the declaration, "By the sweat of the brow shall men eat bread," not in a way as to work unnecessary hardship, but in the spirit and to the degree that when they have left school the habit of caring for property, by knowing its value, will be thoroughly fixed.

For all of these things we must look to the superintendent. He is the real head of the school. He selects all of the people who serve under him, or at least he should do so. He should himself endeavor to measure up to the ideal and should be the best judge when others are considered for appointment. With a school so organized and so idealized let us proceed to develop its intellectual, moral, and manual sides.

First, let us look to the intellectual development of our pupils in such a way as will "best fit them for life." Let us pass over courses of study, subjects to be taught, promotions from year to year, and all similar details, and consider only the forces to direct our work. It is the teacher or teachers who are to be considered now. Again I must ask you to listen to the great Rousseau:

"A teacher, what a great soul he ought to be! Truly to form a man, one must be either himself a father, or else something more than human."

Rousseau does not say what a great intellect he should have, how skillful he should be in the handling of children, and how well trained he must be for his work. He says, "What a great soul he ought to be!" I believe, however, that the soul Rousseau had in mind would be intellectual and would be prepared for his work. The inference is at least to be drawn that he must have a realization of the great responsibility he has assumed when he enters upon the profession of teaching; that he understands to his hands are committed the lives of his pupils, not only for the time they are under his care, but for the remainder of their lives as well. This soul would not engage in a work if he is unprepared or partially prepared or indifferent to it. He would only assume its obligations when he has gleaned in the best fields of training that our country affords, and, once entered upon the work, it would become a life study. As a physician who feels for the patient intrusted to his care spends his spare moments in reading medical journals and the results of scientific investigations in order that he may himself be better prepared to administer to the sick, so would Mr. Rousseau's teacher devote himself diligently to the study of pedagogical and psychological questions as discussed by the great minds of the world. In this way he could bring into his schoolroom whatever could be helpfully applied to it. This "great soul," the teacher, will be by nature endowed to reach, control, and direct his pupils.

Again, you tell me that the ideal can never be reached. This may be so; but it is the ideal nevertheless which superintendents of all institutions should carry in mind in the selection and retention of their teachers.

Plutarch, in his essay on "Education," says:

"Next, when our boys are old enough to be put into the hands of pedagogues, great care must be taken that we do not hand them over to flighty persons. The point also which I am now going to speak about is of the utmost importance. The schoolmasters we ought to select for our boys should be of blameless life, of pure character, and of great experience, for a good training is the source and root of gentlemanly behavior. How one must despise, therefore, some fathers who, whether from ignorance or inexperience, before putting the intended teachers to the test, commit their sons to the charge of untried and untested men. If they act so through inexperience it is not so ridiculous,

but it is to the remotest degree absurd when, though perfectly aware of both the inexperience and worthlessness of some schoolmasters, they yet intrust their sons to them, some overcome by flattery, others to gratify friends who solicit their favors, acting just as if anybody ill in body, passing over the experienced physician, should, to gratify his friend, call him in and so throw away his life."

Hear also Roger Ascham on the character of the schoolmaster:

"I have now wished, twice or thrice, this gentle nature to be in a schoolmaster, and that I have done so neither by chance nor without some reason I will now declare at large why, in mine opinion, love is fitter than fear, gentleness better than beating, to bring up a child rightly in learning.

"I do gladly agree with all good schoolmasters in these points, to have children brought to good perfectness in learning, to have every vice severely corrected; but for the order and way that leadeth rightly to these points we somewhat differ, for commonly many schoolmasters, some as I have seen and more as I have heard tell, be of so crooked a nature as when they meet with a hard-witted scholar they rather break him than bow him, rather mar him than mend him; for when the schoolmaster is angry with some other matter, then will he soonest fall to beat his scholars, and though he himself should be punished for his folly, yet must he beat some scholar for his pleasure, though there be no cause for him to do so nor yet fault in the scholar to deserve so. These, we will say, be fond schoolmasters; and few they be that be found to be such. They be fond, indeed, but surely over many such be found everywhere. But this I will say, that even the wisest of your great beaters do as oft punish nature as they do correct faults. Yea, many time the better nature is overpunished."

So here we find Plutarch, nearly 2,000 years ago, insisting that our teachers be not flighty. He says that training and experience is of the greatest importance. He speaks of a father employing an inexperienced teacher because of friendship as foolish as if he would pass over a good and experienced physician and select a novice because of friendship, and says he would as soon think of throwing away his life.

Roger Ascham speaks of the imperfection of teachers in the management of their schools, saying many have crooked natures and try to bend all their pupils to fit them. He also says that when angered about other things they give vent to their feelings in the punishment of their pupils when the pupils do not need it. He points out how they should be eliminated from the work for the good of the children. Both of these great philosophers speak of schoolmasters because in those days the men did the teaching. The same principles, however, apply to both sexes.

Socrates started his great school on the theory of "perfect knowledge is virtue." His aim was to so equip his pupils with all the forces in life as to perfect them in their conduct and in relation to things. He believed that if a person had perfect knowledge he would live an ideal life. His thought was very deep and none of his pupils were able to carry on his work. Even Plato cast the principle aside as impracticable. The greatest of all his pupils, Aristotle, placed the entire responsibility of the education of children upon the teacher. In a school for the deaf it is not the parents who select the teacher, but the superintendent and his board of trustees. Their attention is called to these doctrines from the greatest thinkers of the world. No one need to point out for information the importance of trained, experienced, and successful teachers. This is common knowledge. What we need most is a spur to drive us to our duty. A clear vision of our duty to our pupils will enable us to cast off indifferent and unsuccessful teachers and to seek out those who are intelligent, capable, enthusiastic, and efficient. When we have these we have already entered upon "the best training to fit our pupils for life." The deaf child's language will grow and he will become master of it much earlier than he does now. His taste for reading will be developed at a much younger age and he will be a student of literature, from which he will get great pleasure throughout life. His knowledge of numbers and mathematics will be satisfactory. He will know how to investigate and appreciate the fields of nature that lie all around him. He will know the importance of his work being appreciated in order that his wages may be the higher. He will know the suffering he must undergo for all evil conduct and he will refrain from it. Thus, good teachers will fill their pupils so full of noble ideas and equip their minds so well with useful information and how to obtain more that after a tenure of years in a school for the deaf they will be truly "best fitted for life."



This is a great responsibility we place upon superintendents and boards of trustees, but no greater than they ought to be willing and anxious to bear. It is a great responsibility they place upon the teachers, but no greater than the teachers ought to be glad to meet. In fact, they must do so from their very nature or they can not do it at all. It is as foolish to expect good work out of a teacher working against her will as it is to expect water to run uphill. She must have a liking for it. It must be in her very heart and mind, and there must be the physical strength to sustain her. She must love it above all things. When her task is done for the day, she must by nature feel the time has been too short and some things have been left undone. She must be an investigator, knowing where and how to find things to apply to her school, and must know how to apply it to the individual pupils. She must be a teacher of the pupils and not of the subjects. Only in this way can the teachers and the pupils accomplish that great harmonic whole which "best prepares them for life."

Teachers who know they are not meeting and can not meet such standards should find employment in other fields. Superintendents who, when given entire freedom to select their own and have not the ability, inclination, or courage to seek for the best, should likewise give up their work.

What great schools we could have with the whole corps of teachers as good as the best one or two. How smoothly and harmonically would the children develop mentally, morally, and physically until it would be a delight for every person to behold them in their work. Truly Rousseau was correct: "What a great soul the teacher ought to be." Plutarch is correct when he demands experience and training. Socrates is correct when he says teachers must have true knowledge and be able to impart it.

After the moral and intellectual foundations are thoroughly and carefully provided for we can now consider the manual side.

Here, again, the same high standard for the teacher is raised. We shall consider, however, not the teacher, but the plan and method of development. The first question naturally arising, What trades shall be taught? I do not consider of importance for this paper. We have already based our discussion on a higher plane of efficiency, and this will apply equally to all trades. The second question to be settled is whether our pupils shall have fundamentally manual or industrial training. Years ago I might have said industrial, but now I emphatically say manual. Children should be taught to use their hands intelligently and skillfully. When this is accomplished, we can then consider the industrial line to pursue.

Herein I believe our schools for the deaf are not working up to their greatest opportunities. Most of the work is industrial—the learning of a special trade—hoping the pupils may go out into the world and earn a livelihood by following it. Experience proves they do not do this. It is only a small proportion of those who learn any trade that follow it after leaving school. Our graduates and undergraduates who have left school naturally take up such employments as are offered to them in their own communities. It is more often the case that this opportunity is not the trade learned in school. It is therefore the greater reason that the pupils should have general manual training, in order that they may be the better prepared to follow such employments as may conveniently come to them. But even if they are to pursue their trade learned in school the manual training preceding the industrial is equally important. With it they can be more skillful in their special work and become better mechanics, rendering greater satisfaction to their employers and earning a higher wage.

We are liable in this age to speed on too fast. A boy does not like to go through a course of training step by step. He wants to skip most of them. He is not happy in making a good box, but would rather make a poor roller-top desk. Teachers of industries and superintendents of institutions often countenance this practice. Mr. Nelson, superintendent of the school at Manchester, England, visited the United States to inspect the schools for the deaf. He had heard much of our manual and industrial training. He told me it was a disappointment to him when he found that there was practically no manual training in this country. Construction work is rarely done from drawing; or if so, it is a very incomplete sketch of what the object is to be. Our pupils should be taught to understand drawings, to make them themselves, and to work from them. This will take time, but generally the tenure of our school course covers many years and we really have the time. It may be a question of proper understanding on the part of the head of the school or it may be for

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a lack of funds to secure trained and skillful teachers. But, whatever the reason is, it must not stand in the way of the "best preparation for life." This "best preparation" must know neither men nor means, but must presuppose both. In fact, I doubt not that when our schools are once founded on this broad basis of efficiency in all things money will come freely and abundantly. Forty years ago our schools spent but one-third of the money they now spend. Their broadening work has gone on by adding department after department, increasing the expense. Every phase of development has added to the expense account, and the people have gladly approved and met the demands. If we now accept the manifold phases of our school work, including manual training, and take some decisive stand for a higher efficiency, making all work for the greater and more lasting good of our pupils and all mankind in general, we can as assuredly count on the financial support of the people. So, then, let efficiency be our shibboleth, and let it apply to every phase of our school work and all departments of our schools, whether they are educational in their purposes or merely accessory to carry them on. And in the course of time, yea, in the course of a short time, we shall be sending a greater number of bright and efficient boys and girls back to their parents when they have completed our course of the "best training for life."

Dr. DOBYNS. Mr. A. H. Walker, of Florida, and Mr. Keith, of California, are to conduct this discussion. I will ask Mr. A. H. Walker, of Florida, to take the floor.

Mr. A. H. WALKER. Mr. Chairman, ladies, and gentlemen, I am sure that I express the sentiments of this convention when I say that we have listened with a great deal of profit as well as pleasure to this valuable paper, written by this valuable man of the profession. A discussion presupposes opposing views. I am in full accord with and the paper meets my hearty approval; therefore there can be no discussion.

Dr. DOBYNS. That is a pretty good way to get out of saying something.

Dr. CLARKE, of Michigan. How much money ought that model teacher to be paid?

Mr. JONES. He is worth all the public can pay. I believe that when the results that can be accomplished are known the public will gladly pay a large salary.

Mr. H. E. THOMPSON. Just what do you mean by manual training?

Mr. JONES. Training of the hand to do any skillful work—not simply learning one trade.

Mr. JENKINS. Why would it not be possible to combine the two systems? If you have a pupil in school 10 years, haven't you time to give him a preliminary training, the A B C of industrial training, and an elementary knowledge of some distinctive trade?

Mr. JONES. I think the paper says that.

Dr. TATE. There was one statement made in that paper I think will not be found to be correct. As I understood the speaker, he said there is ample time for manual training in the course that we give our children in school. Well, I differ with him on that point. There is not ample time. If you will estimate, you will find that if our pupils have been in school a normal time they will have spent less than one year at their industrial training. They can not enter this industrial work in a very substantial way until they have been in school several years. They are not supposed to spend more than one-third of the day in the industry after they have entered it. So, I think, one of the greatest handicaps we have in giving our children thorough manual training is the limited time we are able to give them after entering these trades. What good remedy? I don't

know. Some suggest that pupils be allowed to return to the institution and spend part of their time in acquiring skill. Whether that is practical or not I don't know. I doubt whether it will ever be done.

Dr. CLARKE, of Michigan. I fear in many respects I am an old-fashioned teacher, and in this matter of manual training I think, perhaps, I go to extremes. To me it has always seemed rather foolish to have boys 15 and 16 years old making little models, as I had them once described, "trap-sticks," and working for 15, 20, or 40 minutes at manual training. Now, I do have a certain amount of manual training in the Michigan school, which is given in the first six grades, the first six years of the child's life, and after that the industrial training of our school is practically done on a business basis. In the first place, if you teach your boy to work 40 minutes or an hour and then stop and go at something else until he gets rested up, and perhaps again in the afternoon for another half hour at manual training, you never in the world will teach that boy to work, and the greatest object of this work is to give your pupils the feeling that honest labor is a great blessing to them and a blessing they must appreciate. We try to train them so that they feel that the greatest fortune that can come to them on graduation is a good job where they get fair pay for a fair day's work. And you can never get them in a position to give a fair day's work if their work has been done in little snatches of 40 minutes or an hour or even of an hour and a half. We have some manual training for the lower grades, but when a boy gets into the sixth grade he goes to the shop to learn a trade. They know what the shops are, and they and their parents, generally after consulting with the superintendent, select the boy's trade, and he has to work at it four hours at a stretch. The foreman of the shop is usually a man of some judgment and wisdom, and he is told to be a little easy on the pupils that come there at first. If he sees a new pupil in the shop can not give four hours' steady work without getting exhausted, he lets up on him. He doesn't allow him to sit there and loaf, but says to him, "You have worked hard for two hours and a half, you can go out and play ball now." But he brings him up to the point where he can do four hours' work without being physically or mentally exhausted.

Dr. DOBYNS. How many hours does that boy get in school work in the day?

Dr. CLARKE. He puts in three in school and one and one-half hours in study.

There is another point in the paper I wish to criticize. For heaven's sake why did he go to an Englishman to find out about American schools. An Englishman who stands up and says that in the manual training schools in America we do not use drawings. I begin to teach the children to use drawings in the fifth grade, and I haven't a boy in my shops that can not read and make drawings, and I believe it is so in most other schools. One of our graduates, two years ago, without any especial training except what he got in the schoolroom and shop, went into a designing engineer's office in Flint, and to-day, if they have a particularly intricate drawing, one that requires more knowledge, more ability than an ordinary draftsman has, they try to get that boy that graduated from the Michigan school two years ago. And they pay him well for it. He is in



great demand. He is rather an exceptional case, I admit. We don't claim to make them all like that, but they all do know how to make mechanical drawings and to work from them, and I believe if this Englishman had traveled around and looked a little closer he would have found it was the rule, not the exception, that the boys work from drawings. That is the only point on which I wish to criticize Brother Jones. Why did he ask an Englishman about American schools? We all know what Englishmen are. I do not believe we are quite so far behind the times as to try to make a mechanic and not have him understand how to make and use mechanical drawings.

A MEMBER. Should this manual training given to the deaf differ from that given to the hearing? I have enjoyed the paper very much, and believe it is a masterpiece. I have thought for a long time the deaf should be educated the same as the hearing, and when they go out from school they will adapt themselves to the conditions as they find them, if we have educated the head, heart, and mind.

Mr. GOODWIN. Every deaf child should be taught some kind of handicraft during his school age of growth and development, and he should be taught to do something well, as nearly perfect as possible, and when a boy finds he can do something well, to meet your approval, you have gained much in his favor. Handicraft is not trades teaching, but should be used for its educative value. However, it is well, and sometimes the best thing we can do for certain deaf boys, to teach them a trade by which they can earn a living—something that will give them assurance that they can be independent.

We have sometimes seen college-educated men not able to make a living at anything. They lacked handicraft training to help them find out their talent.

Mr. PATTERSON. What is the difference between manual work and sloyd work?

Dr. DOBYNS. Sloyd work is generally manual work; manual work might not always be sloyd work. Perhaps sloyd work has more to do with wood, while manual work would have to do with iron, clay, wood, or any other useful material.

(There being no further discussion of the paper read, the address of the president was given, as follows:)

#### PRESIDENT GALLAUDET'S ADDRESS.

Ladies and gentlemen, I have been somewhat in doubt as to what subject I ought to speak on to the convention in the so-called president's address, for, as you are all aware, I am no longer in the active pursuit of the profession of educating the deaf. It is true I am a member of the board of directors of the institution at Washington which has the college in it, and in that way I have a relationship to the institution, but I am not expected to do any teaching. It is possible I may do some lecturing when I visit Washington from time to time. But as an ex-teacher I think perhaps I couldn't do better than to speak a few words on the somewhat hackneyed subject of "Methods." The question of methods is still a live one. There are differences of opinion with regard to methods, and those are honest. No one has a greater respect for an opinion that differs from his own than myself. My friends who hold opinions different from my own have my entire respect and my confidence in their sincerity. But I think the question is one that is to be settled by results, and if all who have that question to consider will take up results fairly, honestly, without bias and without enthusiasm, they will come to the conclusion at which, after a long life spent in the education of the deaf, I have been led to arrive.

Several years ago I prepared an essay and I am not able to say where I published it or when I delivered it as an address, but a few months ago a

quotation was made from that address in one of the school papers and that gives so accurately what are my present convictions as to methods that I ask the privilege of reading that extract and making it an essential part of my address this morning.

"It is possible to teach a child born deaf to speak well and to understand the speech of others by observing the motions of their lips. This has been done in many instances in many countries. But the conclusion often drawn from such successes that all deaf children may do likewise is not sustained by experience.

"Success in teaching deaf-mutes to speak is a matter of gradation, and in estimating the value of results enthusiasm and bias on the part of teachers often lead to serious error. A large proportion of deaf children whose teachers assure them they have acquired the power of speech, and who use their voices, such as they are, with considerable fluency, are conspicuous failures in the world at large.

"The utterance of these, understood easily by teachers and intimate friends, is often so muffled or harsh or imperfect as to repel strangers, thus putting the deaf person at a much greater disadvantage than if, remaining silent, he resorted to writing as a means of communication.

"There are teachers of the deaf in the United States who have urged within the last few years that the language of signs ought not to be used in teaching deaf-mutes, and in a few schools attempts have been made to carry out this idea. It is, indeed, possible to teach deaf children without use of the language of signs in the classroom or the public assembly.

"But the testimony of great numbers who have been so taught is that their intellectual development has been narrowed and retarded by the refusal on the part of their teachers to make use of that language which is theirs by nature. My experience with the deaf, and my lifelong familiarity with their peculiar language, lead me to accept this testimony as a statement of a general truth, and to express the hope that the day is not distant when the natural language of the deaf will have its proper place in every school, as German deaf-mutes demand, and as many German teachers recommend."

I may perhaps be permitted to speak briefly of the various experiences which have led me to the conclusions which I have just presented to the convention. Forty-four years ago there were two schools opened in this country for the instruction of deaf mutes by the purely oral method, the school at Northampton and the one at Lexington Avenue, New York. That very year the board of directors of the Columbia Institution, at Washington, wishing to have a knowledge of what would be best in the education of the deaf, directed me to visit Europe and to examine many of the schools there carefully to determine what methods it would be desirable to introduce into this country. The establishment of the oral schools previously alluded to led to this action on the part of the board of directors at Washington.

I spent six months in Europe at that time, visiting 40 schools for the deaf conducted under various methods, many purely oral, some purely manual, and some on a system of combination of methods in the same school. On my return I prepared a report making very positive recommendations. I became convinced by these examinations that our country had not been fulfilling its duty in regard to the oral education of the deaf. And I recommended in that report that in every school for the deaf in the country full opportunity should be given to every child to learn to speak and read the lips. I claim, without any fear of possible contradiction, to have been one of the earliest and prominent advocates of oral teaching of the deaf in this country. And I stand on my record, which has been consistent with the stand taken in 1867.

In 1868 a conference of principals met in Washington and after a long discussion they approved of the recommendations I had made in my report. And I will say that that action, in connection with the establishment of the schools in Northampton and New York, gave a great impetus to the oral teaching of the deaf in this country.

I was led in 1867 to advocate what I termed the combined system for teaching the deaf, and this advocacy was made in the history of the profession for the first time in my report. And it was made clear in my report that that was a very elastic system. That it might allow the establishment of oral schools for the deaf; that it might allow the establishment of classes in which the oral method might be used entirely. But I claimed it was evident from an examination of the oral schools in Europe that not all the deaf could be taught to talk well enough or read the lips well enough to be called a success. And

for that reason I advocated the use of a system that should be suited to the differing capacities of the pupils. Those recommendations of the conference of principals were largely adopted by the schools of the country and you are well aware how general the oral teaching of the deaf has become. My only regret to-day is that there are those who hold that all the deaf may be best educated under the oral method. With all respect to those who hold such views I am compelled most earnestly to aver that that is not sustained by the facts.

In 1897 I made a visit to Europe with the special intention of meeting many orally taught deaf mutes. I arranged this, through correspondence with friends, to meet a great many deaf people on the Continent and in Great Britain. I have never counted up how many mutes I met on those visits, but it was many hundreds. In each city large numbers came to meet me, and especially in Germany, where the oral method had been prevailing from the beginning. The testimony of those mutes was in favor of the combined system, a system that should recognize the fact that many did not succeed under the oral method. Some of them expressed themselves very vigorously. I can give an illustration. One deaf mute would point to another and say, "That one talks fine," but [indicating another] "That one talks" [expressive shrug].

There was a distinction made. They admitted they were glad to have instruction in speech; they valued it highly; but they emphasized the fact most unquestionably that there were large numbers who did not succeed in school under the oral method, and it would have been much better for them if efforts to make them speak had been abandoned. They felt it desirable to have a language of signs. And I remember in Leipzig some two or three hundred met me. The director of the institution gave a lecture to those mutes, many of whom were graduates of the school, and he made it in two languages—the language of signs and the language of speech. I asked him afterwards why he used signs. He said, "Oh, a great many of those students couldn't understand the voice or my spoken words." And I learned that the chapel exercises were conducted in the same way—signs and speech—because speech was not a full and complete means of communication when addressed to a number of the pupils.

Only five years ago I visited the school at Dresden. There they had a beautiful new chapel, finished the year before. It was vacation and there was no school, but I inquired about the exercises in the chapel and the director said they used the sign language and speech together, and, with a smile and a little shrug, "You see it is a sort of combined system." He knew I was the father of that expression and so he made use of it. There in those two oral schools par excellence in Germany, where the oral system was brought forward, the language of signs was used in the chapel exercises. I speak of this as a confirmation of the opinion I have expressed. And I hope, my friends, that you will not think I am carried away with enthusiasm or that I hold to those views because I wish to be consistent with the views I had 40 years ago. Not so; when I uttered those views at that time they were inconsistent with my previous utterances. And a prominent member of the convention characterized me as "the degenerate son of a worthy sire," because I, the son of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, who never had much to do with the oral method, should advocate such a thing. I endured his sarcasm and I still live, so if I am criticized now I can endure it. I don't think his criticism hurt me at the time and I never felt that I was "a degenerate son of a worthy sire." At that time I think I was a "progressive," to adopt an expression which you people of Wisconsin well understand. And I hold I have always been a progressive, and if I thought now that my views ought to be modified or changed I should make haste to modify and change them lest the end of my life should overtake me before I had opportunity to do so. And I am ready to change to-day if I can be convinced; but all my experience of the years leads me to the conclusions I have stated, and I hope you will take these in the nature of farewell remarks from me. Washington delivered a farewell address when he retired, and I don't expect to be president but a few hours more. So, as retiring president, I give this thought to you, to my highly valued oral friends, those who urge the use of oral methods exclusively. I ask them to take what I have said and think of it and sleep on it and see if they can not get something good out of it.

Now, there are two more points. I feel that it is of great importance in our profession that there should be more men employed as teachers. And my fair friends must not take any exception to that remark at all. No one has a greater respect than I for the women of the profession. When I began, 55 years ago,

there were hardly any, but that is all changed. They have done excellent work and I am proud of them. But my own belief is that in the management of schools in which about half the pupils are boys there are more men needed than we now have in the profession. That brings up the other point on which I wish to speak, and that is the question of salary. Men come high; they can not be had at low salaries. It is shown lately that young men do not care to go into the profession because of low salaries. The salaries ought to be higher, both for men and women. I don't know when it will be adjusted so that the salaries for men and women will be the same; that is regulated by the law of supply and demand; but if larger salaries are needed to get men teachers, more money ought to be given. The necessities of the deaf require more money, and we must have more money. The necessity of it must be impressed upon the legislators who are disposed to hold the purse strings tightly on the question of expenditures. I know sometimes that it is a matter of pride on the part of an institution to have gotten along with a low per capita. I do not think it is a subject of pride at all. I think, on the contrary, it is something to be rather ashamed of, to boast of a low per capita expenditure. It ought to be what is necessary for the best management of the school. Don't be afraid to have a good high per capita. The education of the deaf is worth it. It demands it, and if properly presented to those who have charge of the purse strings they will loosen them and make appropriations. I have sometimes found that it was easier to get a large appropriation than a small one. If I asked for a small one they were inclined to haggle, while the larger request carried weight in itself. And I do enjoin upon my brothers in the profession not to be afraid to ask for large things in legislation, and to demand that everything shall be done which the best education of the deaf child asks for and calls for.

I will not take more time. The president's address is not provided for, but I do not know that there is anything against having one, so I have taken the liberty of bringing forward these few things this morning and I hope I have presented them clearly. I do not ask for the adoption of any resolution. Consider what I have said and if you find any truth in it make the best of it.

At the close of the president's address, the secretary read letters of regret from Miss Margaret Stevenson of Kansas, Dr. C. W. Ely of Maryland, and Dr. E. H. Currier of New York.

Dr. Dobyms announced that Mr. P. D. Woods, of Rochester, N. Y., not being present, the conference on "The Essentials of Language Work" would be omitted.

Also the absence of Miss Evelyn Heizer of Indiana necessitated the passing over of the conference on "Essentials in Arithmetic Teaching," which brought the program down to the

#### CONFERENCE ON READING, INCLUDING BEST LIST OF BOOKS FOR SCHOOL READING.

Directed by Miss S. FRANCES WOODS of Illinois.

1. Should reading be taught systematically in our schools?
2. Should reading have a place in the daily program of the schoolroom, or should it be in the hands of special teachers?
3. How large a number of classes can one teacher care for?
4. Should reading be given a place in the course of study?
5. How much time can each class be given per week?
6. What is the effect of systematic reading on the use of language?
7. Do results obtained justify a separate department of reading?
8. To secure satisfactory results, how soon should the teaching of reading begin with a class of deaf children of average ability, and how often should the lessons be given?
9. What should be the first lessons in reading, and from what sources derived?
10. Should younger pupils be allowed to meet in their reading language forms which they are unable to use in original work?
11. Should reading for intermediate classes be done in the presence of the teacher or given as night work?
12. Should the reading of a story be required in a specified length of time?



13. How can pupils be kept from memorizing a story, and how taught to make the thought their own, reproducing it in their own words?
14. Is it advisable to ask questions upon a story read?
15. How much should be required in the way of reproduction?
16. How much time should elapse between the reading of a story and its reproduction?
17. Give different ways of dealing with what has been read.
18. What are some of the devices to be used for stimulating a taste for reading?
19. Should children, as they read, year by year, be taught to give books and authors read a place in classified literature?
20. Can the deaf be taught to distinguish between fables, fairy stories, myths, and legends?
21. Generally speaking, should fables or fairy and folk stories be given first?
22. Should detail study be given in the study of a poem?
23. Is dramatization useful in bringing out the meaning of stories?
24. What preparation does reading, under the direction of a special teacher, afford for the study of ancient history? Of United States history?
25. Are you convinced that the children who have had the benefits of the reading course read more than they otherwise would have done?

Miss Woods. I very much regret that the teacher who takes charge of the reading in our school could not take charge of this conference, but it was impossible for her to be here. There is one thing in connection with the slip I wish to say. It speaks of including a list of the best books for school reading. Instead of the best list of books we have brought a number of books which we have found valuable, not necessarily the best, but found valuable in connection with our work. There are about 55 of these. And in the exhibit connected with the art department of the Illinois school are some reproductions of stories in covers that give work done in different classes that have been in school 6, 7, 8, and 11 years. The flyleaf will explain the method used in the preparation of these papers.

Mr. Driggs. I would like an answer to question 4: Should reading be given a place in the course of study?

Miss Woods. We feel that this would be very desirable, but it is quite possible for the work to be carried on without its being in the regular course of study. The difficulty in incorporating it in the regular course is that having only one teacher it is impossible to give the whole school the benefits of the work. We are obliged to make choice of classes. If it were to be incorporated in the course of study it would seem desirable to have everyone have an opportunity for the work.

Dr. Crouter. I would like an answer to question 2: Should reading have a place in the daily program of the schoolroom, or should it be in the hands of special teachers?

Miss Woods. A number of years ago we made an effort to have it on the daily program of the schoolroom, to have each teacher conduct reading suitable for his or her class. Our experience led us to believe this was not as valuable a method as having a special teacher, one whose taste, education, and preference were along that especial line. We have found the enthusiasm for reading is very greatly increased and the interest in and results from it have been better since having a special teacher than before.

Dr. Crouter. Does that one teacher give instruction to the whole school?

Miss Woods. No; that would be impossible. We are obliged to make selection of classes. We would be glad if we could have more than one teacher.

Dr. CROUTER. About what proportion of your pupils study reading in this way?

Miss Woods. In the past year there have been about 100 under the instruction of the teacher. That is about one-fourth of our school.

Mr. BLATTNER. Will you please answer question 9? What should be the first lessons in reading, and from what sources derived?

Miss Woods. The first lessons should be within the understanding and the interest of the class which has the work given it. If it is a primary class the work should be something within the understanding and interest of the class. We have found some primary readers—primary supplementary reading books—that have been very valuable. These progress a little more rapidly than our pupils can. The first pages are simple enough, but the progression is at a more rapid rate than our pupils can take. We have a plan of only taking part of a book for a class which is under instruction and laying this book aside and taking another of similar grade; in that way using the material in several different books in which the stories are not connected.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. What is reading? I would like to have Miss Woods answer that.

Miss Woods. That might embrace a very small field, and it might embrace quite a large one. Reading, with a primary class, is simply taking something within their line of experience and broadening it out a little so far as they are able to follow. With an older class it is going into imagination, into facts, fable, and folk story.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Is your reading work kept below, parallel with, or beyond the mental power of the child? Is he plunged into things he has not had before, or are you keeping him from that?

Miss Woods. It is not our aim to have him struggle toward things, but to have sufficient knowledge of the thing he has undertaken so that it may be an incentive.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Then you answer, on a parallel; not below?

Miss Woods. Yes, more nearly parallel; not below, or not beyond so that he must struggle. It is not the plan to have many new expressions in the reading, but have only a few.

Mr. A. H. WALKER. Will you please answer the twentieth question, and in that connection I would also like information about the twenty-first.

Miss Woods. I will answer the twenty-first before the twentieth. Generally speaking, should fables, or fairy and folk stories be given first? We find it better to give fairy and folk stories first, as they appeal to the imagination and are more simple than fables, as those need the reasoning faculty.

Answering question 20, Can the deaf be taught to distinguish between fables, fairy stories, myths and legends? We have found it is quite possible for them to distinguish between them, but not in the early stages or early grades. The myths and legends and fables should be given only after they have some powers of reasoning.

Dr. FAY. Will you please answer question 18? What are some of the devices to be used for stimulating a taste for reading?

Miss Woods. Short stories are found valuable. Then the teacher's own interest and enthusiasm and love for the work. We have now installed a bulletin board, and the pupils are encouraged to bring news to the teacher. She corrects it, if it is necessary, then it is put on the bulletin board, which is a slate with two leaves to be folded



over, so that it is possible to have five large slate surfaces. The interest and rivalry of each class is awakened at seeing what the other classes are able to bring in. The tendency is to bring in things from the daily newspapers that you would hardly care to have put before a class. This has been discouraged by the teacher, and the pupils are urged rather to bring in some historical item, some political move in Congress, or some interesting event, a notice of the death of some author or politician, or some one of prominence. All this arouses a great deal of interest. They are eager to see what is on the bulletin board as soon as they come into the classroom.

Mr. WHITE. I would like an answer to question 13. How can pupils be kept from memorizing a story?

Miss WOODS. This we make an effort to do by not having reproduction given in the early stages of their reading course; in the first year, and perhaps the second year, there is no reproduction asked for. As the stories grow longer it is not so easy for them to commit to memory, and the teacher leads them away from the details to the main points in whatever is read, so that she brings out by questions the vital things and leaves the details. This reproducing should be done in the presence of the teacher, not in the study hour.

Dr. CROUTER. Please answer question 17. Give different ways of dealing with what has been read.

Miss WOODS. Sometimes simply read it and leave it. Then take it again in detail and the teacher gives questions; sometimes let the class ask questions; frequently reproduce it. These different ways are some of the main ones. Sometimes read it and simply enjoy it and talk about it without asking questions.

Dr. CROUTER. Does the teacher go over this work with the pupil afterward?

Miss WOODS. Not always. Usually. Sometimes with questions thoughtfully and carefully prepared, bringing out the main points in the story, not the details. Then sometimes let the class ask her questions.

Mr. JOHNSON. Miss Woods said there were about 100 pupils selected to read. What is the basis of selection?

Miss WOODS. We have been using mostly the brighter class of pupils. The reading has grown from a very small beginning, and we have been finding out what it was possible to do with the reading, therefore, as a rule, taking the better grade of classes, but not universally so. Sometimes I find a class needs one particular line of study emphasized by stories. Perhaps it is history, perhaps geography, then that class having a vacant period during the session I ask the teacher to take the class and give selections adapted to the particular branch on which they need help.

Mr. DAY. Do you find that the older pupils voluntarily read the newspapers—that is, anything except the baseball news?

Miss WOODS. The girls do not always read the baseball news. It requires some incentive, of course. It is because of the need for an incentive that the bulletin board has been instituted. They do read magazines and papers more when they are looking for something for their teacher, of whom they are very fond, than when looking for pictures.

Mr. RAY. I wanted to ask if I have properly understood you. What becomes of the plodder, the average, or under-average pupil,

in your selection of the best class, the brightest pupils, for the reading? What becomes of the slow boy or girl who needs reading more than the other?

Miss Woods. Interest and enthusiasm have been aroused in this work, so that some of the teachers have asked for assistance for their classes, and the teacher of reading has gone into some of those classes where the teacher was anxious to have the reading, and the class anxious also, and has directed work there. The plodders are not neglected.

Dr. TATE. I would like to ask just what part do teachers take in the reading of a class of girls, varying primary, intermediate, and so on; what part should she take in supervising the reading of the class?

Miss Woods. In the class room?

Dr. TATE. In the library books the child takes out.

Miss Woods. She doesn't supervise the books taken out. The teachers go to the library and assist the pupils in taking books, and we have found this reading has been influential in leading the pupils to be willing to take books which they can comprehend. It has had an influence on the school. They are reading better books. They are reading simpler books.

Dr. TATE. Are they allowed to take out a book and simply look at the pictures and then take it back and get another for pictures?

Miss Woods. For that reason we have not allowed some of the younger classes to go to the library when they are not able to take the books we have on our shelves. I suppose anyone who has selected books has encountered that difficulty of finding enough books within the comprehension of the pupils. To obviate that difficulty we have in our library sets of books which are taken out by the teachers, and, while not necessarily worked with as a reading lesson, they are used by the pupils of a particular grade because they are within the comprehension of those pupils. We do not like to have the pupils take out books and bring them back, having found nothing in them except the pictures.

Dr. TATE. What is Miss Woods' opinion of the various readers, first, second, and third, well bound and illustrated? Has your experience been good in securing those school readers? You know they are well selected. Do you think it is well to get all the readers you can, first, second, and third?

Miss Woods. I do find they are valuable. There is only a part of the reader that can be used by the class in a single year, because of its progression being more rapid than the pupil can take. We have found the book published by the Minnesota school very valuable.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. I would like to ask this question, to which I have given much thought: How shall we get our pupils to read? I would like to have Miss Woods, at the close of this discussion, tell us what has been the result of this effort, whether she thinks those who have been in this reading department have been led to read more than those who have not. If so, I think all of us ought to take up the matter.

Miss Woods. To the minds of those of us who have had this closely in charge there has been no uncertainty that the work that has been done has been most valuable in leading the children to read more, to do better reading, and to make choice of better books. There is

no question in our minds. Of course we have taken the brighter classes of children, but there is no reason why it should not be true of all. Of course brighter children are more ready to do those things anyway, but even those not among the brightest have felt and shown the influence of this work.

A MEMBER. Do you allow them to take the readers during school hours to use them for busy work?

Miss WOODS. Not the books we use in the regular reading work. They are encouraged to read other books and are allowed to use them when their tasks are finished, at a time when they would use busy work.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Are the older pupils reading any more as a result of your teaching reading?

Mr. GILLETT. In reply to that question I will say that the girls have their own club room, where they subscribe for and have their own daily papers, and the boys have their own club room. They sustain them themselves; the institution has nothing to do with them. We can go into those reading rooms almost any time and find the boys reading magazines and papers—something besides the baseball news.

I don't want to flatter ourselves upon the extent of our library, but a member from another institution for the deaf stepped in the other day, and said to his wife—calling her by name—"This is probably the largest library for the deaf in any institution in the country." The legislature has for a number of years made an appropriation of \$500 a year for the library, which has given us ample funds to buy very good books. We have had our reading teacher go to the bookstores in Chicago and select books. It was interesting to see how she was regarded with curiosity by the booksellers as she would take up book after book and lay it aside, saying "That is for hearing children, not for the deaf." It is very difficult to select suitable books for these classes.

Mr. A. H. WALKER. Please tell us if you use with your children pictures and to what extent—that is, with the younger children—in inciting their imagination and stimulating them to secure the ability to read what has been written about those pictures. We find it very helpful to collect as many and as varied pictures suitable for deaf children as possible, and our children pore over those pictures. It gives them a desire to read, and they look at the foot of those pictures to read the description as far as possible.

Miss WOODS. That is a thing we very much desire and one reason why we like these supplementary school readers, because they are all illustrated and very acceptable to our deaf pupils. It awakens interest just as it does in speaking children. We have been hoping for some time that we might accumulate a lot of stories. If we do, we must have them illustrated. A collection of stories would be only half done if not illustrated.

Mr. TRAVIS. I am not particularly acquainted with the education of the deaf. I have, however, found this in reading, that the pupil who reads beyond his head and reads beyond his grade is always—well, not always, but generally—the best reader in his grade. [Applause.] Now, the question I want to ask is this: What is the difference between the mental working of a deaf child and that of a hearing child that would make it advisable for the hearing child to do this and for the deaf child not to do so?

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In the Indiana school last year there were a number of books put into the library for the school library, not the institution library that the children got the books out of to read. And those books were read, and they ran all the way from primers to fourth and fifth readers, taken from the reader series. And many of them were taken out by children I knew were reading beyond their depth, but they wanted them, and if they got anything out of them it surely was a gain. It helps a hearing child to read beyond his depth, and it seems to me it is what the deaf children want. And if a child showed any disposition to read beyond his depth I would let him wade in, even if he was deaf.

The time allotted for this conference having elapsed, the conference was declared closed.

#### CONFERENCE ON HOW TO USE THE MAP IN GEOGRAPHY TEACHING.

Directed by Mr. J. S. MORRISON, of Missouri.

1. What is geography?
2. Why teach it?
3. When begin?
4. Where begin?
5. What is a map?
6. Why is a map?
7. Why use a map at all?
8. What is the first map to be used?
9. What are the first principles to be taught?
10. Why?
11. Where or by what means can they best be taught?
12. Why?
13. When begin the use of book maps?
14. What order follow in the use of them?
15. What points bring out in first use of them?
16. What use make of pictures as aids to map teaching?
17. What use of objects?
18. Would you have pupils draw maps?
19. When begin?
20. What include?
21. Would you use a sand-table map?
22. What for?
23. Would you take pupils out for field study?
24. What attempt to teach by this means?
25. What difficulty have you had in the use of the map?
26. What was the cause?
27. What was the remedy?
28. Do you emphasize the word "why" in map teaching?

Mr. WOODBURY. I would like an answer to question 9. What are the first principles to be taught?

Mr. MORRISON. I will answer question 8, What is the first map to be used? And the answer will also apply to question 9. The first map I would use would be the floor of the schoolroom, teaching the directions—north, south, east, and west.

Mr. DRIGGS. Do you find any geography suitable for your primary classes?

Mr. MORRISON. I don't know that I do.

Mr. DRIGGS. What do you use when you get up in the grades?

Mr. MORRISON. The first geography I use is one that has been in use for years and years, Monteith's Questions and Answers. I have sought for a better one, and a better one is possible; but I have not

yet been able to find it. I find some good elementary books for hearing and speaking children, but not suitable for the deaf.

A MEMBER. What book is it—the introductory one?

Mr. MORRISON. Yes.

A MEMBER. Do you use those questions and answers?

Mr. MORRISON. Yes; but the teacher modifies them.

Mr. TATE. What place has map drawing in the teaching of geography? Do you attempt to teach map drawing to all the pupils sometime during the course, and what year would you think the proper time to begin?

Mr. MORRISON. We might have to define a map first. I would say this is a general proposition: Map drawing from the time they begin to study until they have completed their course, because I think by that means more than any other they become familiar with the subject. The reproduction of the map from memory and from measurement; first from measurement, then later have them reproduce the whole hemisphere from memory. It is not done as much as should be. I am not saying what we do, but what we should do.

Mr. THOMPSON, of Montana. Just a few words regarding textbooks in geography. I made quite an extensive search this spring and I looked over two published by the American Book Co., one by Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, of New York, and one by the Educational Publishing Co. I finally got one just published by Fry that is excellent, entitled, "First Lessons in Geography," recently gotten out by Ginn & Co. and it is very good.

Mr. MORRISON. Such suggestions are what we want. If there are any differences of opinion here that is all right. Let us make a discussion out of this conference. If you have different opinions from those I may express do not be afraid of giving me offense by making a suggestion, as Brother Thompson has done. Do not be afraid. Let us hear from you.

Mrs. KREUGER. Answering question 23, Would you take pupils out for field study? How far do you go in your work in field study?

Mr. MORRISON. Begin just as soon as they have gotten a little idea of distance and direction. Then go out for a little walk—not very far at first. Something they can comprehend and where they can see just a little bit farther than they comprehend. That is what we always want to keep in mind in teaching geography or anything else. Take the pupil as far as he can understand and where he can see just a little farther.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. What use do you make of dissected maps in the teaching of geography? We have had a plan the last few years of making a good deal of use of dissected maps in our geography work.

Mr. MORRISON. We do not use them at all. We have a few small dissected maps of the United States used by the smaller children.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. You take any State in the United States and have the image so fixed in your mind that you can know the State. Isn't that the foundation we must lay? It is something you have to go at slowly and unless you have the image on the mind you might as well not talk to them. Don't you think the dissected map should occupy a large part of our geography work?



Mr. MORRISON. I have no doubt it would be a very valuable means of teaching the forms of countries and States. We have not been using it in our schools only in a very easy way as play.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. We have gone so far as to have our State map dissected into counties, so the children can learn thoroughly the geography of their own State.

Mr. BETTS. Do you use the outline maps in advanced geography?

Mr. MORRISON. Yes, we use the outline and have the children put in the things they have learned. The map of the United States and of our own State and of some others are printed on a piece of slate cloth in outline and work is given on them, the pupil himself putting in the county lines, cities, various products, etc.

Miss WETTSTEIN. Will you answer questions 25, 26, and 27?

Mr. MORRISON. I had those questions there, expecting you teachers to answer. There are many difficulties that arise in the use of the map and different causes for them, so there must be a remedy to fit the cause. If you have had a difficulty state it and let us discuss it.

Mr. RAY. Will you answer question 7. Why use a map at all?

Mr. MORRISON. Perhaps some one can answer that. I thought I was to ask these questions and the teachers were to answer them. We have to use the map as the best known substitute for the study of the earth itself.

Mr. GOODWIN. Do you make use of the sand table and clay table; and if so, what is the result, satisfactory or unsatisfactory?

Mr. MORRISON. I have used the sand table, not the clay table. The results have been very good, in some cases not quite so good I think as could be reached by more careful preparation for it and a definite idea of what we are going to do with it. If you are going to just make an outline table I can see no special good in it. A piece of paper and a pencil would answer just as well. But it is of value in teaching land forms, hills, valleys, etc.

Mr. GOODWIN. I was visiting a school one day and I asked some of the pupils if they knew where North Carolina was. One guessed 5 miles and another guessed 10,000 miles. Now I make use of railroad maps, a language and geography lesson out of the same thing. One of the pupils is going to take an imaginary trip. We select the destination, then we take the railroad map and trace the way. And another day one pupil will say his relative is going to Texas, or somewhere else, and we trace that out—the country and cities he will pass through and the number of miles he will travel. I have made very valuable lessons from the sand table, railroad maps, designating what States we go to and what prominent cities, and drawing out of the language lesson a geography lesson at the same time.

Mr. JENKINS. I think the map is a lesson largely for the purpose of teaching language. You take a working drawing of a design that is a river on the map and you can not read it unless you have learned the language. The school map is a diagram that is new to the child and strange to the child when he takes it up. It is not so much to have knowledge of the distance and location of certain specific spots, and the committing to memory of them, but the chief use is to understand the language in which it is written, to understand what is

expressed on the map, and to infer a good deal that is not expressed. For instance, here is Chicago on the borders of Lake Michigan. You infer something about the contour of the country. I have seen children whom I am sure suffered.

Mr. MORRISON. The use of the sand table might be brought in there. If you have an ordinary map showing the course of rivers have them reproduce it on the sand table. By this means the teacher can see whether the pupil understands the significance of the lines on his map. The pupil may not be able to state the thoughts in English, but may be able to state them graphically in sand.

Mr. DRIGGS. I thought perhaps Mr. Woodbury would tell of the method we use in our Utah school. In our class in geography we have some large outline maps that have been prepared by the children under the direction of the teacher. Rivers, mountains, etc., have been placed. In addition to that some of the maps have pictures cut out of old magazines and pasted onto the maps. For instance, a picture of a farm scene or wheat-field scene is placed upon the map of Dakota or Wisconsin, where there are big farms. In maps of the mining regions little pieces of coal and iron are put on and in the lumber regions little pieces of wood and sticks. And the children have taken a great deal of lively interest in these maps.

Mr. MORRISON. That is what I had in mind in questions 16 and 17; that is the answer to those questions.

Mr. WOODBURY. I would suggest that I have found very useful the sheet maps published by William Beverly Co., of New York. They are printed in contour, the details to be filled in by the pupils; the contour gives a certain guidance to them.

Miss WOODS. I have often had suggested to me that we assume all of our children know more than they do, and the reason we lead the children off the track is because of that assumption. Now, in teaching geography from the map we ought to remember that it is simply a miniature map, and that it would be a good idea to sometimes use railroad maps and to always call attention to the scale of miles. And then get the child to have some sort of a conception of distance, of how many miles away he lives. In that way you enlarge and increase the scope of his ideas. But too often we assume that the child knows something we have known all our lives and we do not teach the child that this is simply a miniature representation of part of our country. I think we should remember that in all of our teaching.

Mr. THOMPSON. Do you have the child draw maps in connection with his other studies?

Mr. MORRISON. Yes; when time permits, and when it leads to a better understanding of the subject. It is especially to be done in teaching history.

Mr. THOMPSON. In some classes they make their own maps from flour and salt.

Mr. MORRISON. Yes; and they are very good.

A MEMBER. Following Miss Woods' plan of estimating distance from the child's home to a given place, I find it well to show them the difference between going by rail and by water, the difference in miles.

A MEMBER. What geography do you consider the best textbook in schools for the deaf?

Mr. MORRISON. The one we are using is the best I know, but that is a pretty hard question to answer unless one knew all about all the many textbooks. Several years ago we made a selection of Ridway & Hinman's new geography as the most satisfactory for advanced classes. The language was most direct, clear, and simple.

Miss BILLINGS. In the Michigan school we use the Atkinson. We also use the blackboard maps, and we also make salt and flour relief maps, and, further, we use hundreds, thousands of pictures, collected from every source. Some of the best have been from the railroad companies' posters. I have made it a point to collect them myself. We have mounted thousands of pictures, and we use some of these in travel work. These travels are written in the first person, and the children are required to make some estimation of the time it will take to go, say, from Flint to Chicago.

Mrs. KREUGER. We are very "new" down in Oklahoma, and we haven't very much money in our school to buy maps and other appliances; and I find that in teaching geography, drawing helps me more than any other one thing. Most of our classroom maps are home-made, with the assistance of the pupils who are good in drawing. I find that this work has greatly helped to impress upon their minds the outlines of the different parts of the United States. Last year my class in first-year advanced work was very eager to know where the fruit grown in our State was sold and where we bought the things we needed. In tracing out the commercial routes to these places we became very familiar with the different sections and the outlines of different sections. We also made maps showing where different products were grown, minerals mined, etc.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Do you make the teaching of geography subordinate to the teaching of language?

Mr. MORRISON. I think it is not subordinate but coordinate. At first language predominates, but as time goes on geography is its own best reason for being taught.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Do you look upon your geography facts as so many facts to teach to the child, or as just an interesting way of giving him language, pure and simple? Or do you look upon the grasping of the facts as being of value?

Mr. MORRISON. Both are of value, of course.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Is your first aim in teaching geography to make a language lesson?

Mr. MORRISON. No; on the whole it is first a geography lesson, and language teaching is incidental.

I have been asked to answer question 3. When begin to teach geography? The answer to this will partly cover Mr. Walker's queries. I do not mean at the beginning to take a textbook, but merely the rudimentary facts of geography. I should say to begin geography about the latter part of the third year, but that depends somewhat on the age of the child and his development; it might be the fourth year, introducing it as an incidental in language work.

Miss MAUZY. In what grade do you take up the textbook?

Mr. MORRISON. An elementary textbook might be used in the fifth grade. I do not think it would be wise to use one any earlier.

Dr. DOBYNS. Do you think the average ordinary deaf child in the fifth grade has enough language to think out and contemplate the facts in geography?

Mr. MORRISON. Not all of the facts of geography by any means but many of them.

Mr. THOMPSON. Do you mean by fifth grade the work in the ordinary fifth-grade public school?

We use Fry's "First Lessons" in our third grade, but that is their fifth year in school.

Mr. MORRISON. The fifth year in school is what I call fifth grade.

The chairman announced that the time allowed for this conference had elapsed, and it was accordingly declared closed.

#### CONFERENCE ON THE NOTEBOOK AS A SCHOOL HELP.

Directed by Mr. J. S. LONG, of Iowa.

##### A. THE TEACHER'S NOTEBOOK.

1. Why should a teacher keep a notebook?
2. Is the teacher's notebook merely a record of daily work?
3. How much of the lesson should the teacher's notebook contain?
4. Should the notebook contain daily marks of pupils in lessons and conduct?
5. The teacher carries the general plan of his work in his head, together with the standing and mental peculiarities of his pupils; of what use, then, is it to put it down in a notebook?
6. It has been said that a teacher's notebook should contain a thorough record of his work, with methods described, etc., so that his successor could carry on the work and possibly use these methods. Is it fair to require the teacher to thus give some one else the benefit of his or her own work?
7. Is the idea of the notebook more that it shall serve as a help in review or as a suggestive manual for future work and improvement?
8. Does the notebook belong to the teacher or to the school?
9. Should the notebook be kept in the form of a journal?
10. What are the more important things the notebook should contain?

##### B. THE PUPIL'S NOTEBOOK.

1. What is the primary object of the pupil's notebook?
2. What advantage is there in copying corrected work in the notebook?
3. Should the work be written in the notebook and the corrections made therein by the teacher and preserved thus?
4. What distinction is made between "news" and "journal"?
5. Does copying into a notebook tend to make a pupil careless and dependent on it and thus lose the advantage of forming the habit of retaining his lessons by memory alone?
6. In copying corrected work do pupils really profit by the exercise and note the mistakes or merely copy mechanically?
7. Would not the time spent in copying work into a notebook be better employed in language drills?
8. Should a pupil be allowed to copy anything he pleases in his notebook?
9. Is the work to be copied into the notebook of a permanent or temporary character?
10. What are the more important things the pupil's notebook should contain?

Mr. LONG. The time was when I thought everything was a notebook, but my friend, Mr. Robinson, persuaded me, or very nearly persuaded me, that the notebook was of no account. But I went back on the other side finally. I have my ideas of what a notebook should be, but I should rather in my answers provoke discussion, so that we may get the views of others and arrive more nearly to the ideal of the perfect notebook.

Dr. ARGO. What is your idea of what a teacher's notebook should be?

Mr. LONG. I do not believe in putting down in the notebook everything that takes place in the schoolroom, but there should be a record of the work so that when review comes up you know just exactly

what has been gone over. It should be a record book that contains your work, the standing of your pupils, and such suggestions as to overcoming difficulties as may come to you from time to time in your work. Often some occurrence will suggest means of overcoming a difficulty. That would, of course, go into the notebook. But every little thing, every feature of the work, I do not think is necessary.

Mr. BLATTNER. Should the notebook contain daily marks of pupils in lessons and conduct?

Mr. LONG. I think, to a certain extent, yes. I find in making out reports if I depend on my memory I may forget a credit or a demerit. Not necessarily every day, but enough to show what the pupil is doing from time to time—his improvement or deficiency. By doing this I arrive at a better marking when I give him his standing.

Mr. THOMPSON. How do you mark? It is a hard proposition and one I have been figuring on for a long time.

Mr. LONG. Why, mark on a scale of 10. Some prefer putting down "E," "F," or "G" for "excellent," "fair," or "good," etc. This is a good plan, but I like the scale of 10 as well as any.

Mr. THOMPSON. For instance, you have a class and you ask a certain number of questions. You go around once and a pupil fails on the one question he is asked. Would you give him zero on that account?

Mr. LONG. That would depend. If he showed he had not given sufficient work in trying to master it I certainly should, but if the whole class showed that they did not understand it, I would not mark anyone down, but would give it for another lesson.

Miss BROWN, of Winnipeg. Please answer question 7. "Is the idea of the notebook more than it shall serve as a help in review, or as a suggestive manual for future work and improvement?"

Mr. LONG. I think it is largely as a suggestive manual to be an aid in future work. At the same time it must be relied upon to furnish the basis for review work.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Does the notebook belong to the teacher or to the school?

Mr. LONG. I think it belongs to the teacher.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Why?

Mr. LONG. Because it is the teacher's reference, his suggestion for future work, his record, and contains his individual work.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Suppose the teacher retires?

Mr. LONG. He takes it with him.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Not leave it with the succeeding teacher?

Mr. LONG. No; his ideas are a part of his assets in teaching. He is not paid to instruct his successor and give the latter his ideas. The school claims his services so long as he is with it and he receives a salary. His notebook is his private property.

Mr. DRIGGS. Suppose the institution officials require every teacher to keep such a record book and the institution provides the book, what then?

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. They belong to us.

Dr. TATE. Please answer question 7 in class B. "Would not the time spent in copying work into a notebook be better employed in language drills?"



Mr. LONG. In most cases, yes; but there are certain kinds of language work that should go into the notebook to be used as models and for study.

Mr. RAY. Please answer question 10, class B. "What are the more important things the pupil's notebook should contain?"

Mr. LONG. There is a question I am not prepared to answer with much confidence, but I think it should hold the original work of the pupil, models and forms, journal or news. More of this kind in the primary classes; less as classes advanced.

Mr. RODWELL. Will you answer question 5 in class B. "Does copying into a notebook tend to make a pupil careless and dependent on it and thus lose the advantage of forming the habit of retaining his lessons by memory alone?"

Mr. LONG. I think it has that tendency, but it is a question of the choice of two evils. Under certain circumstances it might have this bad tendency, and again the good obtained may outweigh this evil. The teacher must be the judge in this and use the notebook rather grudgingly if this bad effect is noted.

Mrs. KREUGER. My experience is that the pupils may be taught to make their notebooks as methodical as a business man's pigeonholes. In other words, the notebook is the pupil's mental pigeonhole, to be used for future reference.

Mr. MANNING. Isn't this pigeonholing rather a useless sort of business? It isn't very profitable to the child to merely put it into the notebook, thinking "Just before examination I will cram," instead of thinking over and digesting the facts at the time and using them for mental development. Doesn't it make it worse than useless?

Mr. LONG. I am inclined to agree with Mr. Manning on that point.

Miss QUINN. I would like an answer to question 4, section B. "What distinction is made between news and journal?"

Mr. LONG. I would say when the pupil goes into the schoolroom and writes on the board miscellaneous items regarding himself, or anything he has read, it would be classified as news. But when he writes consecutively from day to day what happens to himself, or events which he sees, it becomes a journal.

Mr. MORRISON. What advantage is there in copying corrected work in a notebook?

Mr. LONG. If there is any advantage it is that the copying process helps fix in the mind the corrected form. Sometimes, of course, the pupil will copy mechanically, but with a careful pupil copying will help to fix it. This work becomes then a reference work.

Dr. TATE. Would you recommend that pen and ink be used, or that the pupil be permitted to use pencil?

Mr. LONG. With the exception of small children I recommend the pen. I think it makes them more careful; it teaches them to be more neat.

Dr. TATE. In our study rooms we have been greatly annoyed by children writing in their study hour, using pen and pencil, and we think they waste a lot of time by that, and we have prohibited the use of pen and pencil because we do think they waste much time. I would like to know the feeling of the convention on letting pupils use pen and pencil during study hour.

Mr. LONG. In the study room, and in preparing lessons for the morrow, with us the pencil is generally used, but in copying work in

the schoolroom ink is used. In the advanced classes ink is used in the record and the notebook.

Dr. TATE. Do you recommend the use of pen or pencil either in the study room in the preparation of studies?

Mr. LONG. If they have no set lessons to be prepared they have no business with pen and paper.

Mr. COOK. I would like question 4, class B, answered more fully—the distinction between news and journal.

Mr. LONG. If the pupil comes into the schoolroom, goes to the blackboard and writes any item that occurs to him I call it "news," but if I require him every day to write what happens to himself and have it done regularly from day to day, I call it a "journal."

Mr. THOMPSON. In regard to using pencil during study hour: For instance, you give a child a page or two pages to write. One of my children got 14 new words out of half a page. She used the dictionary throughout. Now it was impossible for her to remember all those words, and the use of the pencil was a necessity in order to prepare for the next day.

Mr. LONG. For that kind of work pencil and paper should certainly be provided.

Miss TADE. Please answer for me question 8, class B: Should a pupil be allowed to copy anything he pleases in his notebook?

Mr. LONG. No; I wouldn't let him copy anything he pleases. Sometimes in the case of a bright pupil who needs occupation I would let him do copying to keep him from mischief, but not as a rule.

Mr. HASENSTAB. The purpose of the notebook seems to bring back to the pupil's remembrance the proper use of some phrase or idiom or language exercise he has learned before. Now I would like to make mention of a certain editor's wonderful ability to write up able articles without resorting to reference books and other means of reference, but practically from his memory. The foundation of this ability was his daily practice in his early manhood to detail to his wife at the tea table everything that happened about him during the day, every person he met, everything he said to them, everything others said to him, and what others wore. Thus he had learned not only to observe persons and things, but also to remember the same. This practice led into his editorial work also, and practically he was able not only to recall persons and things he wanted to write about, but also to describe them as if he was actually seeing them at the time of writing.

Would it not be well to try in the schoolroom to train and encourage children to notice and classify in their minds not only things that they see or hear about, but also language exercises that they learn?

Mr. LONG. I believe in requiring pupils to notice things and write them in the schoolroom. I believe that would help observation, but it is not advisable for him to write everything with the idea of compiling a cyclopedia.

Mr. EDDY. Is it not better to carry knowledge in the head than in the notebook?

Mr. LONG. You are right. I said before about the same thing. It is the choice of two evils, but sometimes the advantage gained in copying is greater than the danger. Let the teacher judge.

Mr. COOK. Please answer question 8, class B. "Should the pupil be allowed to copy anything he pleases in the notebook?"

Mr. LONG. No; only what the teacher tells him to copy.

Mr. McFARLANE. Isn't the use of notebooks in school a waste of time? Isn't it better to depend on the memory?

Mr. LONG. I think it is best to depend on the memory in all cases where possible. It makes a pupil more independent.

Dr. CLARKE. I notice a number of notebooks here. What about the memories?

Mr. CAMERON. Will you answer question 10, class B. "What are the more important things the pupil's notebook should contain?"

Mr. LONG. His original work. By that I mean that in the lower grades the corrected work of his lessons as he writes them should be copied. In the advanced grades I let them write the work into the book and then I correct it. In the lower grades, where no textbooks are used, the notebook must supply work to read and reread and to become the pupils' textbooks; with older pupils it serves just as well, perhaps, to have the work written out in the notebook and corrected there.

Mr. JENKINS. I should like to ask a question about marking. In a particular sense I know it is easy enough to mark on a numerical scale, carrying, if necessary, to three points in decimals such questions as this: What is the source of the Rhine? What is the capital of Spain? But the question I wish to answer in regard to the pupil's standing is not what particular facts have found lodgment in his mind, but what is his status and rate of progress in intelligence and spiritual power? For example, how would you mark the Apostle Thomas on his expression of disbelief in the appearance of the Lord? How much for lack of religious faith, and how much for scientific curiosity?

The chairman declared the time allowed for the conference had expired, and after brief announcements by Dr. Dobyms, on motion, the convention adjourned until 8 o'clock p. m.

#### EVENING SESSION.

The convention was called to order at 8.15 o'clock by President Gallaudet.

Dr. N. F. WALKER. As chairman of the committee appointed to call upon Supt. E. W. Walker, of the Wisconsin school, I beg leave to report:

In behalf of the committee appointed to call upon Mr. Walker of this school, who, as you probably all know, is at the sanitarium in this city, I beg to report that I have performed the duty as commissioned. I was very much gratified to find him getting along as nicely as could be expected. He sent his kindest regards to all of you, as well as his expression of regret at not being able to be with you, but expressed the hope that all would be so well taken care of that you would not miss his presence on this occasion. He said that for three years he had given this matter thought, and his plans were all made and he hoped all would go away with a pleasant remembrance of the Wisconsin school. We did not have the pleasure of seeing Mrs. Walker, but Mr. Walker hoped that within 10 days they might be back in their home at the school.

The members of the convention then listened to a most inspiring address by Prof. R. L. Lyman, of the University of Wisconsin. The title of the lecture, as it appeared on the program, was "Idols and ideals, but Prof. Lyman said he was going to leave off the first part and speak only of "ideals." To him "ideals" were typified by service—men and women who gave lives of service to humanity. He said that while he had felt some timidity in addressing such an audience, he had been encouraged and had gained inspiration from the thought that the lives of its members were lives of service—service cheerfully given for the betterment of certain classes—without thought of large reward or great emolument. That ideal service meant the letting of one's life enter into the lives of other men and women, the dignifying and beautifying of the simplest and humblest kind of work. With his vivid language Prof. Lyman painted and held up before the audience two types of man. One, the old janitor of the first school in which he had ever taught, was an Englishman who had made his own way by the hardest kind of toil ever since he was 14 years of age; uneducated so far as schooling went, yet a member of the library board, of the common council, and a strong worker in one of the leading churches, he was the confidant of and exerted an influence over the careless boys of the school. Though his work had been of the humblest, the sweeping of cobwebs and the cleaning of floors, he had dignified his labor and kept a soul so clean and noble that his influence was felt by all with whom he came in contact; and out of the meager wages he had received, by laying by a small amount each week, he had saved enough to educate his son, and he had educated him not only by giving him a university course but by instilling in him the high ideals that had beautified and ennobled his own life.

The other man was one who had acquired vast wealth by bending every energy and ability to that end, whose ideals, if he had ever had any, had been crushed out and sacrificed to the passion for money making. And now this man, with everything that money could buy, possessed none of the best things of life. His magnificent library had been purchased by the foot, but he could not understand or appreciate its contents. The masterpieces of art that hung on his walls represented to him only so much money. His wealth could purchase any amount of service, but no service was given him, unasked and unpaid for, through love. He had no affection for his fellow men and they had none for him. He was the type of man who had attained so-called success without ideals.

That the audience was deeply stirred by the speaker's eloquence was evidenced by the close attention accorded him. Following the applause at the close of the address, Dr. Tate called for a rising vote of thanks to the speaker, which was unanimously given.

On motion convention adjourned until 10 a. m. Saturday.

## ART SECTION.

SATURDAY, JULY 8, 1911.

## PROGRAM THIRD DAY.

(Session at Delavan Lake Assembly Auditorium.)

10 a. m. Called to order by the president.

Art section. Conducted by Miss Mary Chevis Upham, Illinois, chairman. Address, "Why art?" by Mr. Carl N. Werntz, director of the Chicago Academy of Fine Arts. Conference on "Primary art," directed by Miss Mary B. Beattie, Michigan.

1 p. m. Dinner at the lake.

3 p. m. Steamboat excursion around the lake.

## SATURDAY MORNING, JULY 8, 1911.

The meeting was called to order by President Gallaudet at 10.30 a. m. in the auditorium of the Delavan Lake Assembly.

Dr. GALLAUDET. This session is devoted to the art section and will be presided over by Miss Mary Chevis Upham. I have the pleasure of introducing as the speaker of the morning Prof. Carl N. Werntz, of the Chicago Academy of Fine Arts.

## "WHY ART?"

By Prof. CARL N. WERTZ.

You all know the story of the young man who sat on the edge of a stagnant pool admiring his own reflection instead of going about his proper business. He was left sticking in the mud. This practice of one specialist explaining the beauties of himself and his specialty to other specialists in the same line is somewhat Narcissus like, and very likely to have the same result now that it is said to have had long ago.

If we actually wish the real truth about ourselves, we should listen to what our competitor says about us. So in an effort to find reasons for art training in public schools we should look at the subject not as artists or teachers, but as citizens, taxpayers, men of business, who expect very tangible reasons.

Until recently a discussion of art training from this utilitarian point of view would come to many as a shock, but we now know such discussion to be wholesome if not flattering, valuable if not entertaining, and all welcome such opportunities.

Whatever approach we may take to this subject, we have to remember that no amount of theorizing will change the plain fact that art is already in the public schools of this and every other civilized nation. There is no need to predict; it is here.

Of course art is with us because there is a basic human need for it. It certainly was not, as has been seriously declared, invented by the Prang Co. and by them put into the schools that they might sell their pencils. The wisest and strongest body of educators conceivable could not force such a widespread system upon the public if there were not this universal desire for it. Art is in the schools because the schools, like the newspapers, try to give the people what they want.

Underlying this universal desire for art training there are reasons—real, vital, logical reasons—for it. It is no fad. There are cultural and, indeed, economic reasons. Art is a necessity to science and society, to industry, commerce, and business. It is a universal language for which no adequate translation exists. In separating human intelligence into its elements we find three general tendencies—the tendency toward understanding (the scientific), the tendency toward will (the moral), and the tendency toward emotion (the artistic tendency). These are easily distinguishable, but they are inseparable companions. They overlap and complement each other, but it is through these three tendencies and their combinations that all of man's intelligence is derived.



This leads us to the statement that no universal fact can be appreciated adequately if any one of the three tendencies of the intellect is undeveloped.

To get a complete understanding of an ancient civilization or a modern business we must bring to bear the scientific, the social, and the artistic points of view, and the school system which does not train and exercise all these tendencies can hardly claim to develop intelligent appreciation of anything. The debt that science owes to art is seldom noted, and yet it can not be calculated. To the artistic tendency we owe the unfolding of that greatest of scientific attributes—the power of observation. No man can be an eminent botanist, zoologist, or mineralogist without a well-developed artistic tendency. That is, he must observe at first glance subtle differences in form and color of leaves, plumage, or crystals. He can not make a discovery or invention, thus fulfilling the highest mission of the scientist, unless he can perceive, classify, and recall series of outlines and tints and the orders of their arrangement and sequence.

Not only to the man of science, in the strict sense of the word, is this faculty for careful observation of immense value, but the soldier, the teacher, the preacher, the lawyer, the politician, the merchant, the banker, the artisan, all are daily aided by it, not, of course, in the examination of flowers and twigs, but in the general faculty for discriminating observation so necessary to complete information.

Man notices appearances before he investigates causes.

Where, therefore, would our study of mathematics have been but for the interest awakened in the resulting effects upon one another of lines in curves or angles, or our study of physical science as determined by such laws as those of color and force, were it not for the interest first awakened by their æsthetic effects in architecture, painting, or sculpture?

The Egyptian system of mathematics, I am told, though it seems almost too good an argument for art to be true, was built up by their investigations begun while studying architecture. Pythagoras was studying music when he began the discovery of the laws of sound, and Leonardo and Chevreul were studying graphic art when they made their great contributions to the scientific understanding of color. Thus does art actually anticipate science.

Your friends of the school board may concede that the study of drawing and designs is a means of cultivating the imagination, and they may go on to claim this as its weakness, saying, "We don't want to cultivate the unreal, the impractical, the visionary; but science is quite another thing." But let us show how this visionary art study, having anticipated science, actually completes its results.

The truly successful scientist uses his facts to attain a knowledge of unknown facts or principles. To this scientist there always comes the time when the things he knows to be true are not enough; when he finds knowledge limited; when we must, to go ahead, depend upon imagination. At such a time the scientist whose mind can stand upon the known facts and soar in imagination up into the unexplored land is the one to whom new inventions, the supreme victories of science, are possible. Thus the apparently unattainable is attained through the agency of the imagination, acknowledged to be the special attribute of the artist mind. This may be the reason why so many successful inventors, like Fulton, Morse, and Bell, have started in life by making a study of some form of art. It is entirely reasonable to state that no important discovery is possible to one whose mind is not able to go beyond that which is ordinarily done by science. An original product, before it becomes real, must be ideal.

Did you ever notice in what sequence the inventor plans the ideal he wishes to make real? Seeing a need, he thinks out a way to supply it.

He observes; he imagines. You see his processes thus far are distinctly along the road that art training makes easy. Then he makes a drawing. He sees his mistakes, makes corrections, and so goes from drawing to drawing, always thinking, with pencil in hand. His invention may almost be said to be an artistic creation, so great has been the aid that art has given. An almost serious topic for high-school debate is contained in the question, "Has the great inventor's working drawing followed the conception of his mind, or has the mental development of his project followed his drawing?" Either side might win.

The disciplinary value of art in the schools and its wide application is much undervalued. One objection to it has been that it was harder than many of the other studies. This is, of course, the student's point of view. In his other exercises he may recite once in a week. The rest of the time he may only

cultivate a "wise" look. This wise look, particularly in a lecture course, may cover thoughts miles away from the subject under discussion, but if he looks attentive he may be able to "put one over" on the teacher. Not so in his art lessons. The moment his mind wanders from the closest attention to his work it is evident to all who have eyes to see, and in consequence art is called by the older students a hard study. No other exercise, unless it be the translation of languages or the analysis of themes, gives the teacher such tangible and visible evidence of the thinking done by the student.

Art training, particularly along the line of design, is for obvious reasons the most adequate of all subjects, requiring no special equipment in training the pupils to make wise, unaided judgments, a faculty most important in everyday life. It also materially assists the students with their regular studies. Let me tell you briefly of the experiments made along this line in Indianapolis, as sketched by Mr. George A. Merick, assistant superintendent of schools, in a paper this year before the Western Drawing and Manual Training Association. He said that five of the Indianapolis schools have for the last two years devoted one-third of the time of children in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades to the industrial arts. Drawing, mathematics, and English were used as correlatives with this subject in the balance of the school period.

The educators were surprised to find that the students accomplished nearly or quite the usual amount with their books in the decreased time, and, in addition, it is all done more perfectly. For instance, the industrial classes were 50 per cent perfect in abstract arithmetic as against 5 to 10 per cent of perfection in the same subject, under the same teachers, by those who were not doing industrial work. The success of this introduction of art interests as a motive in all the school subjects has led Miss Seegmiller, the famous supervisor of the arts in Indianapolis, to project and work out a full outline for a public-school system with art as a basis throughout, which will, it is believed, gradually revolutionize the curriculum in that city at least.

The necessity for art training as an aid to commerce has been often acknowledged publicly by committees of business men. It is a well-known fact that the immediate reason for the introduction of art training in the public schools, first of France, then of England, then of Germany, and finally of America, was the necessity which commissions found to exist for public-art training if the countries they represented were to hold their own in the industries.

Considering the universally acknowledged acumen of the American business man, is it not surprising, after this proof, that he should ever doubt the value of art training in the public schools? But the reasons for his doubting are not hard to find. On rare occasions he walks through an American art gallery. Does he find there anything leading him to believe that art has anything to do with everyday affairs? Is there anything there that shows its influence on everyday living? Most certainly not. If he is to believe the galleries, art is only painting and sculpture, and the more unrelated and European it is, the better.

Art itself has suffered by this isolation from the industries of life and has become superficial and detached, while strikes and dissatisfaction are brought on thereby, for industry without art is ugly and uninteresting for the worker. Supposing both artists and garbage men received the same wage, most would prefer the work of the artist.

This neglect is much less common in Europe. The European business man recognized that to keep or regain industrial supremacy he must have beauty in his products, for people choose between equally useful things the one most beautiful. His museums do not neglect painting and sculpture, but they add features vital to the industries.

To compete successfully in world commerce American manufacturers must, like the American girl, of whom we are so proud, be "easy to look at."

But even in the United States many of our successful businesses have evoked the aid of art with most practical results. A notable example is the firm of Colgate & Co., which has met with immense success through aesthetic principles applied to the prosaic soap business.

The automobile industry is relying largely upon the artists' aid, not only in its advertising, decoration of salesrooms, etc., but in a search for beauty of line, proportion, and color in its product.

Marshall Field & Co., and many other similar concerns, not only employ hundreds of artists in their creative departments, but also employ teachers who instruct the sales people in the principles of beauty as applied to the use and combination of the merchandise they handle.

The art spirit is being introduced here, not because the directors personally approve of it, though most of them do, but because they find the public demanding service thus enhanced.

The important American business of advertising leads the world through its use of graphic and literary art. Some of the very best things done to-day are made for advertising and magazine illustration, and these, having the advantage of being widely distributed, instead of being hung in some more or less obscure exhibition, are a great influence in the elevation of public taste, and there is always a ready sale at high prices for paintings and drawings that meet the demands of business.

A most common adverse argument that we have to overcome is the belief that art does not pay the man who makes it a profession. Artists have long been reputed to live only in garrets, to owe everybody, and to partake of food only at widely separated intervals at best. Of course this myth is childish, for one has only to look about to see distinct evidences that the artist is quite as well paid as any other worker.

The drawings for the multitudinous things we use and enjoy are made by armies of high-salaried artists. Our clothing, our house, its grounds, the city in which it stands, its business blocks, its churches and parks, in fact, the whole country, with its harbors, canals, and railways, necessitates the drawing of many paintings, plans, illustrations, sculptures, and designs which are all the well-paid-for products of the artist's taste. This directing taste, if good, has a nation-wide influence upon prosperity through the stimulation of exports and imports; exports of manufactures and imports of tourists, that army of spenders which annually makes pilgrimage to the centers where art and nature have combined to repay such visits.

When we know that Sorolla, the Spanish painter, is individually doing more to redeem the moth-eaten moral, social, artistic, and financial credit of the Spanish Government than is any one man, we realize that truth is more interesting than fiction.

Also it may not generally be known that the French Government proved to be amply repaid for its legislation favoring artists. When sorely pressed for money during the Franco-Prussian War, it received a large cash present from none other than Corot, the famous French landscapist, as well as large sums from other artists. Perhaps these facts are not generally known because, through their art training, these men have gained too much taste to advertise their beneficence. If this is the reason for their reticence then our millionaire masters of industry should be urged to take a short course in art.

Probably the greatest reason for art training lies in its value as a means of expression. Some ideas of great significance can only be expressed in that way. To use a very simple example, the word "oval" means nothing to us unless we have seen a drawing of an oval. If so simple a figure can not be explained so well in any other way, how much more is this true of more complicated, visual ideas.

In trying to express some plain, utilitarian arguments for art in the schools we must not forget that there is a so-called higher side to the questions. As Munsterberg puts it, "a young generation which feels the meaning of beauty to the bottom of its heart is the great need of our community." But we must admit that the "beauty" and "feeling" arguments are difficult for many to understand. Those who do understand such motives will never press us for reasons for art. I think, therefore, that you will agree that it is more necessary for us to supply, instead, proofs that any voter might be capable of understanding when asking a reason for a requested appropriation.

If the foregoing suggestions apply generally to the case of those who speak and hear, how much more specifically do they apply to the deaf young men and women who are your charges. Are not the hand and eye peculiarly developed in those who do not hear? If such is the case, many of these deaf people with adequate opportunity will make the very best of illustrators, craftsmen, designers, painters, etc. In these lines their infirmity would place them at much less disadvantage. Art training will fit them for a most useful and happy life in a field of endeavor peculiarly adapted to their deficiencies. In fact the deaf pupils helped in the school which I represent to remunerative and fitting occupations have been rather aided to put concentration into their highly specialized work through their enforced isolation. One of these pupils of ours has been in the art department of R. R. Donnally & Sons for six years, and another, a refined young woman of fine family, is a highly successful and radiantly happy worker in handmade jewelry in Chicago, while others are in similar appropriate and paying occupations.

Why art?

Because art is a universal language.

Because art beckons business to a new harvest.

Because a nation's commerce, to keep supremacy, must have art.

Because art in industry makes the worker happy.

Because art supplies education with a universal motive and nearly automatic mental discipline.

Because science must have art if it would have philosophy, discriminating observation, and imagination.

Because art training is imperative for understanding.

Has any other study better reason for being?

#### CONFERENCE ON PRIMARY ART.

MISS MARY B. BEATTIE, Flint, Mich.

1. What medium do you first use in teaching art in the primary grades?
2. Do you use clay modeling with the very young children? If so, what proportion of the time allotted for drawing do you take for this?
3. What length are your periods for drawing?
4. Do you use blackboard drawing to any extent in your work? What is its value?
5. Do you find children deeply interested in still-life drawing or in drawing from type forms?
6. Do you consider constructive work of real value in the first six grades?
7. How do you find silhouette work and cutting help you in teaching drawing?
8. How do you give your first lessons in pose drawings?
9. Do you think stenciling, raphia work, basketry, and pottery good in the lower grades?
10. Do the foremen in the shops find the pupils more proficient in the use of their hands now when they enter the shops than in former years when primary art was unknown?
11. What effect does the fundamental principle of the new education—namely, education through self-expression and self-activity—have upon the relative position of art as a study in the grades?
12. How shall the following motives on the part of the pupil influence our teaching of handwork and art? (a) The pleasure of imaging and planning (a purely creative pleasure); (b) The desire for the thing to be made (a utilitarian, acquisitive motive); (c) The pleasure found in the process of doing (an artistic pleasure, leading to skill, satisfaction of accomplishment, the basis of criticism).

Miss Mary Chevis Upham, of Illinois, acting as chairman, Miss Mary B. Beattie, of Flint, Mich., assumed charge of a conference on primary art.

MISS BEATTIE. I have read that Oliver Wendell Holmes said that when he entered Cologne Cathedral he felt like a weak solution of himself. I think from the height of the thermometer this morning that I could express myself in the same words. I certainly feel like a very weak solution of myself.

I think I should like to run over these questions, giving answers, and then we will have discussion.

Question 1. What medium do you first use in teaching art in the primary grades?

Of course, I speak only for our deaf children. I always begin with water colors. Our school starting in the fall, we have so much material we can accomplish more with that medium, and it interests the children more. We use only the three primary colors—red, yellow, and blue.

Question 2. Do you use clay modeling with the very young children? If so, what proportion of the time allotted for drawing do you take for this?

I use it a very great deal. I try to have every fourth lesson a lesson in clay modeling. Sometimes I take the children for a week, fol-



lowed by a week of water color, but I try to have the proportion of every fourth lesson.

Question 3. What length are your periods for drawing?

With the younger children 20 minutes. I have only the first six grades of school. We call the first year the first grade. The sixth grade I have 30 or 35 minutes and they come twice a week.

Question 4. Do you use blackboard drawing to any extent in your work? What is its value?

I use it quite a good deal. I do not think it is of as much value in my department as in assisting the teachers in their own branches; in geography, history, and physiology I think it is of great value.

Question 5. Do you find children deeply interested in still-life drawing or in drawing from type forms?

No; not nearly so much so as from drawing from nature or from posed drawings.

Question 6. Do you consider constructive work of real value in the first six grades?

I think it is of real value, but I think they get more good from the training in drawing and painting than in the time it takes them to do this constructive work, although I do quite a good deal of it.

Question 7. How do you find silhouette work and cutting help you in teaching drawing?

I have found the children are always interested in cutting. I start with the first grades.

Question 8. How do you give your first lessons in pose drawings?

We have a great deal of that kind of work. I always start it with skeleton figures. They do it very quickly. They get the proportion I think more readily by starting with the skeleton work than by starting with the form. I have them do it in a half minute, a minute, and a minute and a half. I never allow more time.

Question 9. Do you think stenciling, raphia work, basketry, and pottery good in the lower grades?

They will take more time than I have for my children, with the exception of pottery, and that I work in just as I do the clay.

Question 10. Do the foremen in the shops find the pupils more proficient in the use of their hands now when they enter the shops than in former years, when primary art was unknown?

They tell me they notice a great difference. The children have been taught to observe, taught to use their hands and to do accurate work.

Question 11. What effect does the fundamental principle of the new education, namely, education through self-expression and self-activity, have upon the relative position of art as a study in the grades?

Well, I think where formerly we considered these art lessons as just a little ornamentation, now most of the teachers consider it an absolute necessity. I was reading the other day that ex-President Eliot had carefully looked into every course pursued in colleges, and the only one he found in which art was not absolutely necessary was the course in theology.

Question 12. How shall the following motives on the part of the pupil influence our teaching of handwork and art: (a) The pleasure of imaging and



planning (a purely creative pleasure); (b) the desire for the thing to be made (a utilitarian, acquisitive motive); (c) the pleasure found in the process of doing (an artistic pleasure, leading to skill, satisfaction of accomplishment, the basis of criticism)?

(a) We just simply allow the children more freedom in their work and give them less teaching; allow them to work out their own thoughts more. (b) Every child takes more interest in making a beautiful thing if he or she thinks it is to be his or her own possession. We try to plan simple things and tell the children they are to belong to them and they are to take them home. (c) I think the answers to the other questions cover this. We just allow them to go ahead and do their own way. Of course I instruct and supervise them, but allow them to work by themselves a good deal.

After I get through with the pose drawing then I do the silhouette work. This is the work of our very young children, none over sixth grade. When we come to the flowers, we do a good deal of silhouette work.

Mr. BRUNS. How do you teach beginners to use tools and materials in the right way? How do you break them in?

Miss BEATTIE. I start with the water colors. The first lesson I give them is on the care of the paints and the brush and to save the paper. As soon as I have shown them how to use as little paint as possible, then I have them clean up and take care of the brushes. I show them how myself first, just as I do in the lesson. I have one brush that we call a No. 7, and we use that throughout the first six grades. We do not use any other. In the water-color paints we have just the three colors, red, yellow, and blue. In a separate box I have the black, which I use for silhouette work.

Dr. TATE. Do you make any difference in what you teach the boys and girls? Do you have special work in mechanical drawing for boys?

Dr. CLARKE, of Michigan. In the fifth grade our pupils have 40 hours' mechanical drawing during the year, and in the sixth grade 40 hours.

Dr. TATE. Who teaches that?

Dr. CLARKE. I think nearly all the teachers can teach it. I do not mean drawings of machinery, but how to make different constructions and the fundamentals. They get that at school in these two grades, boys and girls, all of them, and they all not only can make a drawing, but they know how to use it, and when they go out into shops they can use it. They all get the fundamentals of mechanical drawing—how to draw one line perpendicular, how to construct a square, how to make and use scales.

Dr. TATE. Your pupils are supposed to be prepared to follow the drawings of an architect in case they should be employed in such an office after leaving school?

Dr. CLARKE. No; not as a usual thing, I think. But we teach them to this extent to follow drawings: I gave a tenth-grade boy this problem: I want two tables, the legs to be folded up and set against the wall and sufficiently strong not to fall down, and I want you to go and make them. The boy went off and in a couple of days brought a drawing and submitted to me. I criticized it, telling him the spread of the legs was too narrow. He made another, which I said would do. He made the tables and another boy made one from his

drawing. We do not use blue prints because of the expense. Our original drawings are not of sufficient value to keep them.

Dr. CROUTER. What is the average age of your fifth and sixth grade pupils?

Dr. CLARKE. From 11 to 14. Our usual age of admission is 7 years, and so by adding 7 to the number of the grade you will have the age of the pupil.

Dr. TATE. Do you have a sloyd department?

Dr. CLARKE. No, sir.

Dr. DOBYNS. Don't you think you ought to have your course of instruction carry the pupil up to the blue prints so he could use them?

Dr. CLARKE. I don't see any difference between following a black line on a white ground and following a white line on a blue ground. We are not able to make blue prints on account of the expense. But the boy generally makes the drawing himself and works from it.

Miss WOODS. Is there any effort made on the part of the teacher of drawing to correlate the work with that of the teacher of literature?

Miss BEATTIE. I do correlate with the teachers on nature study. I have the notebooks. They bring the notebooks to me and illustrate them.

Miss WOODS. Does the teacher go with the class to the art teacher?

Miss BEATTIE. Hardly ever.

Miss WOODS. In our school the teacher accompanies the class to the drawing-room, and an effort is made to have the teacher understand thoroughly whatever is done by the class. Then we use it in language work and also supplement the hour that the class spends with the drawing teacher with anything that will assist the work. In the Illinois school we are doing a great deal of paper cutting, water color, and nature study. We find it very helpful to have the regular teacher with the art teacher so that she may supplement the work.

Miss BEATTIE. How long periods?

Miss WOODS. Half-hour periods once a week.

Mrs. KREUGER. Which is considered the greatest means of mental development, constructive work or work in black and white or water color?

Miss BEATTIE. I consider work in black and white and water color. I will ask Mr. Wernitz.

Mr. WERNITZ. I consider both of equal value. I see no difference.

Miss BEATTIE. I find our children get so much more training in the quantity of work they can do with the water color and drawing than in the constructive work.

Mr. WERNITZ. Before you stop, if it isn't taking too much of your time, I should like to hear the last question discussed a little more. I think it would be well to have the manual teachers help to decide question 12.

Dr. CLARKE. There is one point about this matter of primary art that perhaps these questions have not fully brought out and along the line of the last question. Perhaps I can give my idea better by telling of a concrete case.

We had in our Michigan school a boy whom I sized up as almost absolutely worthless. He didn't care how he was dressed, how he looked, or how he acted, or whether he pleased anybody or not. He

didn't even care enough about things to play baseball. I confess he was quite a puzzle to me. One day he said to me, "I want to make a pitcher for you." I said, "You can't make a pitcher, you can't make anything. You have tried every shop we have and every master said, 'For goodness sake, see if there isn't something else that boy can do. I can't do anything with him here.'" So I told him to go and see Miss Beattie and consult with her as to whether she thought it would ever be possible for him to make a pitcher. He went over and she started the work. The first pitcher was a sad failure, but I noticed an immediate change in the boy. The next thing, he came to me and said he wanted an apron big enough to keep his clothes clean—the first time in his life he had ever taken any care of his clothes. He worked hard on the pitcher and began to work hard in other places. We began to have less trouble with him. I think he was about a year and a half making a pitcher that would suit him, although I had not found any fault with the pitchers he made. But he finally walked into the office one day with a very respectable pitcher and presented it to me, and there was as much improvement in the boy in every way as there had been in the pitchers. And I attribute the change in him to this art work and his interest in it through which we were able to get a gleam of emotion into his soul and awaken it, where before he had been but as a lump of clay. And I have an idea that if that was the only result our art work brought forth that year that it was worth all it cost.

MISS MURRAY. In your work among the younger children how would you interest the child who cares nothing for drawing? Those who find pleasure in it of course enjoy it, but I find many who care nothing for it.

MRS. KRUEGER. I am not a teacher of art, and I know very little of art, but I use all I know of art every day in the schoolroom, and from what I have so learned I would say that the acquisitive motive is first, usually; the creative motive comes last, I believe.

With thanks to Miss Murray, of the Kansas school, who first taught me drawing, I would say that there is not an hour in our schoolroom in which the crayon does not form some picture of something the pupil does not know, or of something that I wish to express to him, and I find that this picture expresses more than my lips or the written word. Take the word "oval," and to the average deaf child that means nothing. But the picture of an oval brings a definite image to his mind.

Dr. TATE. I would like to know how many teachers have to write the name of what they draw under it.

MRS. KRUEGER. I am not one of them. I no longer have to label my drawings.

MRS. BALIS. I have taught drawing for many years. Mr. Clarke's remarks remind me of a case in our school. We had a boy who was absolutely without ambition and was the despair of his teachers, but he could draw. After some regular instruction in drawing he began to show an interest in his other work. But drawing was the one thing he really cared for. He is to-day employed as draftsman in a New York architect's office at a very much higher salary than I receive myself.

There was another with whom everyone had trouble. When the hour for drawing arrived he was given colors, brushes, and a cup of

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water. He promptly swept them off his desk, and the water lodged down the neck of a boy beside him. "Well," I said, "if you do not want to draw you need not." The work of his classmates was placed about the room for inspection, criticism, and praise, and no notice taken of him.

The next lesson found him working away with the rest of them; and though his first attempts were fearful and wonderful combinations of drawing and color, we always found something to praise. He is now doing very good work and very rarely gives any trouble. His sense of proportion and detail and combination of colors is well developed, and though he may never be an artist he has received a new means of expression and a pleasant way of employing himself.

I think our pupils are much more observant than hearing children, and as a class they draw better. It is to them what music is to a normal child. Some enjoy it and will succeed at the work, others do not care for it.

Our junior pupils all receive some instruction in drawing. We have a special class made up of older pupils who have shown a marked talent for drawing or designing in some particular line.

I try to develop the particular talent of each child. There is no reason why they should not be successful in the work. We have among the deaf renowned sculptors, artists, portrait painters, designers, engravers, mechanical draftsmen, architects, lithographers. I teach architectural drawing to those who have an inclination for that line of work, requiring them to design, plan, and draw to scale from simple sheds to handsome residences. The work of some of our pupils exhibited at the national exhibition at Toronto, Ontario, last fall received high praise from business men, artists, lithographers, and inspectors.

By all means give the children a chance to learn to draw. There are few lines of industrial work in which a knowledge of drawing will not be useful and a help to them.

MISS UPHAM. The last question: How shall the following motives on the part of the pupil influence our teaching of handwork and art? (a) The pleasure of imaging and planning (a purely creative pleasure).

The pleasure of imaging and planning is, I think, one of the important motives of the pupil, and is something we should foster and not neglect, because it is far easier to reach and develop the imagination of a young child than of an older one. Even with an object before him, a child will draw or cut or model or make from his mental picture of the object rather than from the object itself, for to him the former is more real, more vital than the latter. It is for us to lead him to form habits of accurate and distinct imaging. His pleasure in his work increases with his power to image and plan.

I should like to say that in the Illinois school we are just beginning to teach art to the primary children. This is only the third year they have had it. If you will look at the drawings and cuttings of the circus in our exhibit you will, I think, see a good illustration of the theory that art should be given to the youngest children. Last spring Mr. Gillett invited a circus to give two performances in the school pasture. Of course the children were nearly wild with delight and every class wanted at its next lesson to draw some of the things they had seen. The first six grades were allowed to do it. The work



of the first three grades was as good as that of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. The work of the older group should have been better than that of the younger group; and it would have been if these older children had had drawing during their first three years in school.

Division B of the same question: The desire for the thing to be made. (A utilitarian, acquisitive motive.)

The desire to possess is a big incentive. I agree with Mrs. Kreuger that this is a prime motive. It means much to a child to know that he may have what he is making; may take it home and show it to parents and friends. And yet, with our children, I think, we should be careful not to give them too much. We do not want to institutionalize them. In our school we do not give them everything they make. With the weaving, for instance, we allow each girl, when she leaves school, to choose from among all the rugs she has made the one she likes best to take home. The little children work with inexpensive materials and are given more things, but even they do not have all they make.

Division C: The pleasure found in the process of doing. (An artistic pleasure, leading to skill, satisfaction of accomplishment, the basis of criticism.)

The boy of whom Dr. Clarke spoke may serve as an example. He could do nothing, or thought he could not. But as soon as he found he could do something the spirit of ambition and pride was born, which meant the awakening of manhood within him. That boy worked for a year and a half before he made a pitcher that he was willing to give to his superintendent. As his power to do increased, his critical judgment improved. A drawing that might have satisfied him at one stage of his development failed to please him a little later and he tried again and again. The effort he made to improve in one study gave him the ability to do better in other studies. As his confidence in himself grew his critical judgment (power to choose) improved and his character strengthened.

We have one more conference in this art section, the conference on photography, which by some mistake has been left off the program, and I learned after reaching here this morning that the questions have not been printed. However, Miss Brown, who has charge of the conference, will read the questions to you.

#### CONFERENCE ON PHOTOGRAPHY.

Conducted by Miss MARGARET DE MOTTE BROWN, Illinois School.

Miss BROWN. It seems to me that photography has possibilities in the education of the deaf that have not been thought of often. Treated purely from an industrial standpoint the child may be trained for a trade that he can easily follow, or it may be treated more as cultural education. In our school we do not attempt to turn out finished photographers, but to give them training that may enable them to easily become photographers after leaving school.

Question 1. How much room is necessary for a photographic department?

Necessarily we must have dark rooms first, or a dark room with workbenches and sinks for the number in the classes, and a work-room with table space for the number in the class, a sunny printing



room, a sink, and a blackboard. It is also quite as necessary to have a studio—ours is larger than necessary, 40 by 20—but I do not think it necessary to have a skylight.

Question 2. What equipment is needed and what is its cost?

The equipment will depend largely on the teacher. Personally, I feel that our children should be taught to work intelligently, with the simplest apparatus. If they can do this they will be able to cope with anything they may meet in professional photography, and are far better prepared to work in an improvised dark room at home. Such an apparatus as I have in mind could be bought for from \$250 up, but I should particularly like you to be as generous as possible when buying your lenses. Besides the dark-room and workroom equipment there should be trays, graduate scales, trimmers, printing frames, etc. The beginning class will need a small fixed focus camera, a fixed focus enlarging camera, and a developing box, a total cost, for the size we use, of \$5.50.

The intermediate class will need a larger kodak and developing tank (ours cost \$25). A printing box and enlarging camera, too, are necessary; ours were made in the cabinet shop. The advanced classes need a large view camera, with at least two lenses, a portrait camera, backgrounds, and retouching desks.

Question 3. What are the probable current expenses?

This depends on the teacher and on the classes. For the last two years in our department, where we have between 40 and 50 children, the supplies cost last year \$60, and for the year just ended \$73.

Question 4. Can this department be made a source of revenue to the school?

I do not see why not. It is a great incentive to the children to see their work hung where it may be seen and sold. We never solicit patronage, but often visitors to the school wish to make purchases of cards, etc. Our income last year was \$60, for the year just ended \$76, quite balancing the cost of our supplies.

Question 5. In how far is it possible to correlate with other departments?

To quite an extent. We have found it possible to make maps for the manuscript geography, and in one case to copy a reel from a rare book on weaving, so that a similar reel could be made in the cabinet shop. We have made pictures for the primary department, and our class pictures, taken every spring, are quite an important historical record in the superintendent's office. Then, too, the boys in the cabinet shop made our enlarging camera, printing box, and automatic-closing paper cabinet.

Question 6. Should commercial or artistic photography be emphasized?

I do not think any student's attention should be called to the distinction between commercial and artistic photography. Let them learn to make a clean negative and clear print with some regard for composition. But we must remember that our students often after leaving school find employment in commercial establishments, and train them as far as possible for that work.

Question 7. At what age should children begin?

That depends on how the work is planned. My preference is for bright intermediate children, although older pupils make excellent

beginners, because they understand more. But I always dread to have a pupil enter who already knows how to take pictures.

Question 8. How large should the classes be?

That depends on what the aim of your department is, on the equipment, and on the age of the children. It is impossible to work with very many. This year we had six, several years ago four. It is not possible for a teacher to manage so large a class as in drawing, for instance, for greater personal attention must be given and decisions made quickly.

Question 9. How many hours a week should each class have?

A great deal depends here on whether you are giving trade training and on the size of the classes. I have found it quite satisfactory to have my older and more proficient classes have one afternoon each week; then the younger classes in the morning have one hour two or three times a week. I do not think it worth while to have a class less than two hours a week. I would like to have mine longer.

(b) How many years should a course on photography cover?

The work, as we teach it, divides itself very easily into three years: Beginning, intermediate, and advanced.

Question 10. (a) What work is advisable for a beginning class?

First, becoming familiar with the simple camera and the names of the different parts. Then to use this camera under varying circumstances outdoors and indoors. To make a clear negative, a blue print, a gaslight paper print, and an enlarged print. In the meantime they are learning other things, such as the fact that 8 ounces of water is a very definite amount, and that so many ounces of hyposulphite of soda must be weighed out on the scales, and have made a very good beginning on the technical language of photography.

(b) What is the work of the intermediate class?

The intermediate class will learn to use the focusing kodak, and to make their enlargements with the same kodak; to handle large-sized prints, and to use plates in the view camera, and will be expected to put much more thought into their work.

(c) What is the work in the advanced class?

The advanced class do some portraiture. They make enlarged negatives, do a little retouching—enough to know what it means. We do not feel that we have time enough to make efficient retouchers. They learn enough to know what it is and that they do not know it all.

Question 11. What is the aim of photography in the school? (a) Educational, (b) cultural, (c) industrial.

(a) The children really gain a great deal that is not purely photography. I think, if you watched a child compare a new negative with an old and decide that five seconds was sufficient for this one where fifteen seconds had been employed on the other, and bring out a perfect print, you would feel that they were gaining a great deal, not only in accuracy but in thoughtful neatness.

(b) Along the cultural line we feel that they get a great deal in a widened vision and a greater appreciation of the beautiful, things that will help them in whatever they do after leaving school.

(c) On the industrial side, while we do not aim to make it a trade school, this last year one of my boys who left school the year before

has been in a studio in Joliet, Ill., and is quite successful. Two other boys have been at a college of photography at Effingham, Ill., and the head of the school writes me they have done excellent work, so that I feel, while we do not make finished photographers, that they made a good start with us.

Question 12. (a) Is photography a practical vocation for the deaf? (b) What is its cultural value to the majority who do not use it as a means of livelihood?

(a) I know of three men who are successful—a Mr. Pach, of New York City; Mr. Hainline, of South Bend, Ind.; and Mr. Falkner, of Cairo, Ill. These men own their own studios and are men of worth in their communities. Of course there are many men who would not care to employ a deaf operator, retoucher, or workman, but yet I feel that a good workman will always find a place.

(b) As to its cultural value to those who do not use it as a means of livelihood, it is surely a great resource within themselves, and it is a point in common with their neighbors. The pictures taken at school and carried away by the pupils are a great comfort and source of pleasure to them in the after years.

Question 13. Where may we expect to find competent teachers of photography for the deaf?

Columbia University and Brooklyn Institute each have courses in photography; there is in Illinois a college of photography, and I presume there are some of these students who could adapt their knowledge to the teaching of the deaf.

Dr. TATE. Do you have any trouble in getting material? Are they not opposed to posing for pictures, or do they like it?

Miss BROWN. That is the least of my troubles.

Dr. Dobyns announced that Mr. Enoch Henry Currier, who was to have conducted the auricular section of this session, had been positively forbidden by his physician to make the trip to the convention.

Miss Steinke, of the Wisconsin School, announced that an electrophone, tardily shipped from Chicago for this convention, had just been received and would be set up in the chapel of the Wisconsin School Building, and invited all partially deaf members to assist in giving it a thorough trial.

Mr. JENKINS. I am sorry that Dr. Currier is not here to explain his system of "auditory massage." But rather than have the subject pass without a word of notice I will say that I have had a glimpse of the treatment in operation and have formed an opinion as to its results.

I heard a band composed entirely of pupils of the New York Institution render with great zest and with creditable success, making no allowance for their handicap of deafness, a variety of popular music. The pupils who were in the room, some 250, showed as much interest and enjoyment as you will see in the average audience at a concert.

The teachers with whom I afterwards talked on the subject agreed that the pupils in general enjoyed the music, and that it was a valuable factor in cultivating physical alertness and in promoting favorable conditions of the mind and will.

(On motion, convention adjourned until 3 p. m. Sunday afternoon.)

## RELIGIOUS AND MORAL SECTION.

SUNDAY, JULY 9, 1911.

## PROGRAM, FOURTH DAY.

10 a. m. Sermon by Rev. Phillip J. Hasenstab, at request of committee.

3.30 p. m. "What share should morality and religion be properly assigned in the work of educating a deaf child, considering the circumstance of his being away from home nine months in the year?"

"Notwithstanding all denominational difference, how should that moral and spiritual work be performed with permanently good results—leading the child to a healthy sense of accountability to his Creator and Savior and to an appreciation and practice of sound principles of life?" From the viewpoint of (a) the minister, by Rev. C. O. Dantzer, Pennsylvania; (b) the teacher; (c) the superintendent or principal, by Dr. N. F. Walker, South Carolina.

4 p. m. "Proper system of Bible reading arranged for different ages and abilities of children," by Mr. A. A. Stewart, Oklahoma.

4.30 p. m. "Management of disobedient or truant children, bodily punishment or appeals to conscience—how performed."

## MORNING SESSION.

At 10 o'clock on Sunday morning the following service was held in the school chapel:

Hymn: "Abide with Me." J. C. Balis, Ontario.

Responsive reading: Psalm 119, 89-120. Rev. J. H. Cloud, Missouri; Rev. G. W. Flick, Illinois.

Scripture reading: St. John, xv, 1-17. Dr. E. M. Gallaudet (in signs); Frank Read, jr. (orally).

Prayer: Miss Laura C. Sheridan, Illinois.

Hymn: "O love that will not let me go." Miss Vina Smith (in signs); Miss Effie Johnston (piano); Miss Florence Corey, Frank Read, jr., and Thomas Rodwell (vocally).

Sermon: St. John, xv, 16. Rev. Philip J. Hasenstab, Illinois (interpreted by Frank Read, jr.).

Hymn: "Awake, my soul, to joyful lays." J. C. Balis.

Prayer: Dr. E. M. Gallaudet.

Benediction: Rev. P. J. Hasenstab.

## AFTERNOON SESSION.

The convention was called to order at 3.30 o'clock by Dr. Dobyns, and opened with prayer by Mr. Swiler, of Wisconsin.

The Rev. Philip J. Hasenstab, of Chicago, acted as chairman during the following program:

What share should morality and religion be properly assigned in the work of educating a deaf child, considering the circumstance of his being away from home nine months in the year?

Notwithstanding all denominational difference, how should that moral and spiritual work be performed with permanently good results—leading the child to a healthy sense of accountability to his Creator and Savior and to an appreciation and practice of sound principles of life?

From the viewpoint of (a) the minister, Rev. C. O. Dantzer, Pennsylvania; (b) the teacher, Miss Clyde Carter, of Arkansas; (c) the superintendent or principal, Dr. N. F. Walker, of South Carolina.

The Rev. C. O. Dantzer, pastor of All Souls Church, Philadelphia, Pa., was not present, but his paper on division (a) of the conference had been received and was read to the convention by Mr. Swiler, as follows:

My experience of institutional life as well as my 20 years of religious work among the adult deaf have given me certain ideas as to the proper way of bringing up a deaf child. As far as the child's moral training is concerned, I believe the old way was most excellent. During those days in the institutions, a thorough training in the Bible was given, the pupil was taught to fear and love God, to keep holy the Sabbath, and to reverence the holy Scriptures. Daily the Bible was used to expound some teaching of morality. Aside from this no attempt was made to give the growing child any well-defined idea in regard to religion itself. The church, its origin, government, teachings, and sacraments were, and are still, I believe, to the great majority of the grown-up men and women, mere names of which they knew next to nothing. Their ideas in regard to baptism, confirmation, and the Lord's supper were pitifully incorrect. The catechism and those simple and familiar religious teachings which all hearing children receive in the home parish Sunday school were to them unknown. I have met venerable deaf teachers, graduates of Gallaudet College, men and women who hold high places in the deaf world, who showed by their discussion of religious matters how little they knew of these beautiful truths which our forefathers had to learn at their mothers' knee.

Still, the habits of life of the adult deaf are about as correct and upright as that of the average person. Not a few show their piety in their constant recourse to prayer and in the use of the Bible, whose precepts they endeavor, in their way, faithfully to follow. But the great majority are unchurched, and, as far as I can learn, make little or no religious observances. Their Bibles, while respected, are rarely if at all used, prayer is seldom if ever resorted to, and church attendance is confined to the occasional services of the traveling missionary or to some special service in the regular parish church. Many of these are, it is true, led to attach themselves to the church through the intervention of the traveling missionary, or through some kind friend or relative, but their preparation for reception into the church is, at best, quite satisfactory. What they need is an early training in the church of their fathers. And to properly give them this training we must look to the cooperation of the institutions. They should be trained properly in religion and Christian beneficence as well as morality. And how should this be done? I would say: Continue the good old instruction in the Bible and morality, as in the past, and, in addition, arrange to send out every Sunday classes of pupils of proper age, under caretakers, to the different churches, care having been previously taken to learn the religious preference of the parents of the children. Thus would the child be taught all that he ought to know to his soul's health. This instruction, naturally, the institutions can not be expected to give, but they can show their interest in the welfare of the pupils by cooperating with the clergy of the different churches to give that instruction to the deaf children which they ought to receive. The institution here in Mount Airy has for some years followed a method something like this, and it has given very general satisfaction. In addition, pains are taken to teach all the children to repeat from memory the Apostles' Creed, and Lord's Prayer, and to follow a prescribed form of daily prayer in the institution chapel. This has greatly facilitated the preparation of the deaf child for membership in the church. He shows a ready familiarity with religious matters, and readily undertakes to follow the service. Such men and women make intelligent members of the church. In addition, I think, great pains should be taken to teach the child the duty and privilege "to give of their little" toward church needs, missions, and other beneficent needs. It has been said so often by those who ought to know that, as the deaf child has everything given to him at the institution, he grows up with the idea that the world not only owes him an education, but a living, and resents any demands upon his earnings. In some institutions, societies, or Sunday schools are organized in which earnest efforts are made to teach the children this most important part of religious effort. The child might be taught to give toward hospitals, homes for the aged and infirm, schools for the deaf in foreign countries, etc., so that when he graduates into the world and to the work and worship of the church he can take a larger interest in Christian beneficence.



Mr. HASENSTAB. The second speaker on our program is Miss Clyde Carter, of Arkansas.

From the viewpoint of the teacher (division *b*) the questions were answered by Miss Clyde Carter, of Arkansas, as follows:

I feel this afternoon like the child who has found out that the questions in examination are just the ones he does not know.

In my 10 years' experience in teaching, I have learned that the lessons upon moral and religious subjects are the hardest to prepare, and to give a deaf child a good, liberal foundation upon which to build up his own religious and moral life is undoubtedly our greatest problem.

We have all seen hearing persons without education living beautiful, upright lives in the fear of God, but the very nature of a deaf child precludes any knowledge of religious and moral principles, unless they come by means of education. Their ears being closed to sounds, all their avenues of impression asleep, spiritual and moral training is wholly dependent upon their life in school. Coming from homes of all beliefs and being taught by teachers of all sects, it resolves itself into a serious question.

While the responsibility rests upon each member of the faculty, it is obvious that the greatest share rests with the teacher. It is a great responsibility when we consider that within our hands rest the tremendous issues of time and eternity.

As the needs of our schools are more largely recognized, it is to be hoped that religious training will be under a special instructor as a member of the faculty, and thus relieve the teachers who, while they may be fine literary instructors, do not feel worthy to fill acceptably these higher duties. It would put us more on the footing of public-school teachers, and while lessons of morality would still be in our line of work, the more intimate knowledge of the gospel could be imparted by one who felt the call of God within his soul. It seems to me that teaching Sunday school and other purely religious duties should be more optional with the teachers, and not be regarded as a necessary part of their work. There would be more sincerity and honor in the work, and it would put it on a vastly higher plane. Religious instruction to a worthy teacher is a great opportunity and stretches out like a vast field, broader and more beautiful to the very horizon.

Then again, religious instruction is a temptation to the teacher. Each one of us has a bedstead upon which we do our measuring, and we are tempted more or less to teach our children to think as we think and to believe as we believe. Thus, as a drop of ink tinges a whole glass of water, the belief of the teacher colors the thought of her class. How I wish, when our children leave us, they could have sound principles and broad minds, and that they should look upon God as a God of love and not one of wrath and vengeance. The morning after the earthquake at San Francisco one of my boys said he had been told that God had destroyed the city because of its wickedness. The man who told him was one of the most correct and upright life. Some teachers may believe that and teach it. I do not and could never believe that death and destruction were the wrath of God. We need to teach the truest and loftiest conception of God and steer clear of ideas so at variance with the spirit of our heavenly Father. A school for the deaf within itself is but a proof of God's love working in the human heart, and children can be drawn to Him more readily through teachings of His wonderful love and power.

One of the most satisfactory religious talks I ever had was in my classroom during the time of Halley's comet last year. We talked of the countless worlds in space and how smoothly and beautifully each one moved in its proper sphere. No wrecks, no collisions, but all ruled by a wonderful power. Trains, balloons, airships, all things that man governed, despite his best and most thoughtful plans, would meet with disaster. Did not this prove the power and majesty of a supreme being? And are we not his children? To look upon the stars; to see the sunlight; to watch an innocent babe asleep are but to feel the nearness of a divine power. Beautiful, beautiful lessons can be taught from nature; the industry and wisdom of ants; the care of a bird for its young; the instinct of the squirrel and the bee which impels them to provide for the cold. I would never teach of hell except that one which our bad actions makes us feel in this world; first, because I do not believe in it, and then I would rather teach of this beautiful world and lead a child gradually to reverence the almighty power who made it for us—his children.

Far and away above every means to lead a child into the paths of right living I place the example of the teacher. I mean that the teacher should be honorable, and practice in his or her own life, all those principles he or she may attempt to teach. A child, even a little one, can penetrate a sham, and he not only begins to doubt you, but will soon doubt the truth of what you teach. One of my greatest problems has been upon the observance of the Sabbath. Games of baseball, with fine manly boys, splendid characters as players, were scheduled as a Sunday attraction, and thousands of people passed our school every warm Sunday for an afternoon in the park. I could not teach this was wrong, because in my heart I did not think so, but I thought that city people who worked hard all week were not in the same class with us, and we had better ways of spending Sunday, and ways more in remembrance of God. I want my children to have enough freedom, and never make them look upon religion as a chain to bind them to a joyless life. I tell mine that at home they must respect the wishes of their parents, even though their own ways might be a little freer, and talk to them of the beautiful words of Paul as to offending his brother.

We can never err too far upon the side of obedience in insisting upon a reverent attitude during any religious service. Pupils are inattentive, look away during prayers, and sometimes seem bored, and in their hearts they may feel like they look, but I believe in holding each pupil to respectful attention during any service. Two things may help here. One is the presence of the teacher at the services and let her behavior be that she wishes her pupils to copy. Another good way is to observe the respectful attention always given by well-bred people to any one who has a right to address them. Take your class sometimes to a church for the hearing, and they absorb much of the beauty and solemnity of the services. Every deaf child knows by experience how hard it is to get upon the platform and sign, and nothing puts out a speaker so much nor makes him want to quit right off as to see someone day dreaming or signing before him. How the teacher behaves in chapel has much to do with the pupils, and she must hold herself down to reverent attention if she wishes her admonition to have weight with her class. Sunday school and how to teach it is one of our knotty problems. At the Sunday school convention held recently in San Francisco one of the speakers declared that if the church were to be saved from failure we must look to the children. He stated that in the six leading denominations the number joining in each church in a year had not averaged over three. In our schools we must work hard with the children, for when they leave us, many going into country homes, their opportunity for religious instruction is ended. A child is easy to lead, and school life is the only time. I like quarterlies, and to have the lessons prepared as in a school for the hearing. I believe in dressing in one's best for Sunday school and adding to its importance. I think an informal little chat of a few minutes opens the hearts and breaks down reserve. Recitations with me are the same as in a class of hearing children. If we dwell more on the loving side of God and teach that to give their hearts to Him is but an act of gratitude, we will accomplish more with children. We always give to those we love, and if we love God, to confess Him before men is the most natural act in the world. After a child begins to read, think, and talk with people he is sure to meet with problems he does not understand, but to teach him that God is a wise and loving Father, caring for the sparrow, moving the stars, speaking in the storm, and riding the ocean's wave, will be a plank to save him from shipwreck and disaster.

It is difficult to give a deaf child correct religious instruction, simply because we ourselves, with all our superior advantages of learning, are often at a loss to agree as to the truth. I have often found grown pupils who said they could not love God because he made them deaf. Another one said if God could do all things, why did he not make him hear, when he had prayed earnestly that his ears might be opened. I have had a thousand questions asked me earnestly and seriously and it has made me careful of what I teach. My prayer has always been to teach the truth as God has revealed it to men.

A small boy in our school had been taught "God is good, etc." It snowed one day much earlier than usual in Arkansas. It happened that several of the little boys had holes in their shoes, and as it was soon after the fire, they had to walk some distance to school and to their meals. This boy surprised his teacher by asking: "Is God good?" "Yes." "Did he send the snow?" "Yes." "Did he know the boys had holes in their shoes?" "Yes." He drew back defiantly and signed: "Mistake. Cod not good. Snow. Boys' shoes broken."

Such a little thing as this may be the turning point in a boy's religious life, and right here in such dialogues lies our responsibility.

Proper plan of Bible study was included in my topic. What a momentous question! I do not want my children, young and inexperienced, to read the whole Bible. There are stories of war, of murder, of debauchery that, personally, I consider should be under a ban of censorship during the school life. The Bible is the word of God, a book of great beauty and of supreme value, but we can not prove that His voice is in all its pages. Some of the best students of the Bible admit this truth. I nearly always reserve a small board for one of the most beautiful texts, leaving it on all week, and Friday having it repeated and explained. Use the parables, reproduce Sunday school talks, and often tell the stories of famous Bible characters. I believe in committing to memory many of the texts, besides the Lord's Prayer, 23d Psalm, etc. Let each pupil have a Bible of his own, and make friendly inquiry sometimes as to the depth of the dust on the cover.

I think the Christian Endeavor Society to be the most helpful of all our services. We are especially fortunate in Arkansas in having the Christian Endeavor under the direction of a splendid, consecrated woman. In a large school a junior endeavor should be organized, say from the third to the sixth grade, as what these children can say and understand is too simple for the large ones. The meeting should be brisk and lively and held not longer than an hour. Let all the boys and girls come and hold them to good behavior. In our school we have the topics as in the regular endeavor and always have a teacher to lead. We have Christian Endeavor papers, one for the boys' side and one for the girls', and after the teacher has opened the meeting different pupils take part.

Outside of religious teaching, lessons along purely moral lines should be taught. I place great value upon those lessons that inculcated industry and economy and bending the child in its school life as far as you can to form habits of these two great principles. I believe more and more that our boys and girls should have some special training along the line of sex, and be told in a proper way of things they do not understand. The boys especially need this instruction, and if they receive it, it must be given in school. Cigarette smoking, beer, whisky can all be touched upon, not driving them like cattle, only to break loose from us, but simply teaching the reason why.

A sunshine society or a club is a good thing to foster principles of honesty and liberality and they relieve the tension of holding a child too fast to religion alone. We can do too much sometimes—in fact, we can give an overdose—and to leave a child free but still influence it and guide it must be our aim.

In closing, I repeat that an upright, honorable teacher is the greatest means to bring a pupil to a sense of accountability to God. Just as Jesus was an example to his disciples, he was also their Master. We teachers are just so to-day, and if we show our daily walk to be that of a Christian our pupils can not but be impressed. There are some, of course, we will lose, but the example of a good life is the very essence of successful teaching. It has been said that true education is not only to know right but to enjoy right. Teachers of the deaf should be the very best people, willing to sacrifice for the good of their pupils, giving cheerfully the best that is in them, and keeping always the enthusiasm and simplicity of a child. Such a teacher will have great influence, and although it may not show so plainly when our pupils are with us, in after years their memory will go back to the everyday Christian life of "teacher"; hearts will soften and tears will mingle with the long, deep thoughts, then lessons taught way back in school days will suddenly open into exquisite bloom. May God bless all these earnest, hard-working teachers, and give them all their pupils for His own. Give them not the ninety and nine, but the one hundred.

Dr. N. F. Walker, of South Carolina, spoke from the viewpoint of the superintendent or principal:

Mr. Chairman, ladies, and gentlemen: When the request came to me to have something to say upon this subject on this occasion it came at a busy time of the year's work and I have not had time to give it the thought and preparation I should have done.

I have all my life, since I have been in charge of an institution for the deaf, felt the responsibility that rested upon me as the executive head of that school for proper moral and religious training of my children. It is a matter that has weighed heavily upon me. When I have given my time and thought and discussion of methods by which my pupils should be taught, the greater question

has come to me all along the lines as to the manner and methods of building up the character of pupils for their daily life and for their eternal life. The subject matter given to me has already been read, but I will repeat it: What share should morality and religion be properly assigned in the work of educating a deaf child, considering the circumstance of his being away from home nine months in the year?

There might have been added to that the fact that when the child comes to school he has not had that home training which the normal child of 10 or 12 years has had in his home life.

Notwithstanding all denominational difference, how should that moral and spiritual work be performed with permanently good results—leading the child to a healthy sense of accountability to his Creator and Savior, and to an appreciation and practice of sound principles of life?

These questions have been asked and answered many times since the inception of schools for the deaf in this country.

The answer to the first has been and should continue to be that any so-called education of the deaf that does not have for its prime object a steady growth in the moral and religious status of the child is a misnomer and a worse than waste of time and money.

The answer to the second has been and should continue to be, from the viewpoint of a superintendent, that the superintendent must be an example of right living, and then be sure that he has as instructors no man or woman who is not thoroughly impressed with the great and paramount personal responsibility that rests on him for the proper training of his pupils along moral and religious lines. Since the end and aim of all life's activities should tend to the uplift and betterment of the children of men, it goes without saying that right living should be inculcated by any and all means. Deaf children are sent to school to be educated, and all true and successful education must have for its object a moral as well as a mental uplift. A strong writer says, "The most sagacious school men are now realizing, as never before, that education of the heart and life in right conduct must be made the chief goal of pedagogic endeavor." If this be true of normal children it is doubly true in the case of deaf children. In our schools for the deaf this moral and religious training must be conducted along broad, liberal, and nonsectarian lines. Quite a number of years ago a Jew entered a son at our school. He appeared to be much exercised for fear that his child would not continue in the faith of his fathers. When asked if the child knew that his father was a Jew, or why he was of that faith and belief, he replied "no." He was told that the school had no objection to teaching him, as soon as he had sufficient command of language, why his father was a Jew, and that in all probability when he had finished school, he would be as good a Jew as his father. That idea seemed to satisfy him and he left him with us.

In our schools for the deaf there should of course be no sectarian bias given the pupils in their religious training. It is impossible to have all of them fully accept the belief of their parents, for that is not the case of normal children, but as a rule we have found that our pupils become members of the respective branches of the religious faith of their parents, and this is right.

A statement made to me by a minister in the Methodist Church in my home town just occurs to me. Some years ago he stopped me on the street and said he would like to speak to me about one of my young men, who was in business in that town. He had been raised a Baptist, in a Baptist family, a family which had been Baptists for generations. And this young man had gone to this Methodist minister and said he wished to join his church. And he took especial pains, he said, on account of the boy's father and mother being members of the Baptist Church, to inquire into his reasons for wishing to change to the Methodist Church. And he said he received from him one of the most satisfactory statements he had ever had from a probationer for his preference for his church. His ideas were clear and distinct. The minister rather insisted on his going to the Baptist Church, because his father and mother and the rest of the family were Baptists. But he said for reasons built up in his own mind he preferred joining the Methodist Church.

The responsibility for this moral and religious training can not be entirely shifted from the shoulders of the superintendent onto the teachers. I was very much pleased with the paper read by the young lady who preceded me, bearing upon the responsibility of teachers in this matter. I can assure you that your responsibility is great. But to those of you who have been placed in authority, in charge of these children, I say, after years of observation, you



can not shift this responsibility upon any other source. You may adopt the idea of sending the children out to the respective churches chosen by their parents; you are giving off some responsibility. But when you think that those children come to you for a term of years, placed under your care for that time, you must assume the responsibility.

In our school we require all of our pupils to attend "prayers" in the chapel every morning at the opening of school and in the evening at its close, on Sunday morning to attend regular Sunday-school class for one hour, and Sunday afternoon to attend chapel exercises for 45 minutes. All teachers are expected to lose no suitable occasion to inculcate proper principles of morality and religion into the minds and hearts of the pupils.

An experience of half a century in teaching the deaf has fully satisfied me that the religious welfare of the deaf as a class is best secured by a proper use of the sign language. This is evidenced from the fact that the educated deaf, without regard to the system or method by which they themselves have been educated, who have engaged in special religious work among the adult deaf of the country, have invariably used and depended on the sign language for such instruction. Personally, I would not care to be responsible for the proper and successful moral and religious training of deaf children were I debarred the proper use of the sign language. I do not wish to be misunderstood. I have not said and do not intend to say that there is no other method except the sign language through which this proper training can be ministered. I am simply speaking from my experience and observation. I do not care to be responsible for the general moral and religious uplifting of my school without the proper use—remember I use that word—without the proper use of the sign language. I have assumed that responsibility, and the result of the work I have been able to do has been gratifying.

In view of the great and paramount importance and necessity for proper moral and religious training of deaf children while at school, the managers of such schools should be very careful that no one is employed as a teacher who does not fully appreciate the responsibility for the proper development of the children in this all-important direction. A teacher who is not willing to exert himself at all times, to give earnest and hearty assistance in the proper development of moral and religious principles in his pupils, is not worthy a place in our work. He may be excused for failing to impart technical school-room instruction, but not for lack of proper moral and religious example and training.

A statement made in the first paper was not in accord with my own experience. I believe, without available accurate statistics in regard to the matter, that 90 per cent of the graduates of our schools are to-day active working members of some church. I think I am not exaggerating when I make that statement.

#### DISCUSSION.

Rev. Father MOELLER. I agree with nearly all that has been said in the paper just read; but I must from my standpoint protest against making Christian Endeavor work a part of the religious education of the children of different creeds, or of employing a member of that society to take charge of the religious work for all in the State institutions for the deaf. Such action would interfere with the reasonable wishes of a great number of parents.

The subject under discussion must present to every conscientious superintendent and principal who realizes his or her important position of being in loco parentis to the child, a great and difficult problem. On the one hand, the laws of many States discourage religious instruction, and even the use of the Bible; on the other hand, experience proves that without religion and morality the children of the present would become dangerous citizens. The difficulty of the problem comes from the multiplicity of creeds. Confusion and discord can not be the work of God. The works of God are all stamped with unity. "One Lord, one faith, one baptism." With truth there can be no compromise. Without faith, without religion, without the love and fear of God, without the certainty that comes from faith, that intelligent beings are at all times re-



sponsible to the Creator for every thought, word, and deed—for every act, whether done in the open or in secret—there can be no guarantee that the child will be true to the moral principles of purity, justice, and sobriety. On account of the difficulty of the problem, which, for the most part, is left unsolved in public and State schools, Catholics, who do not admit the possibility of religious instruction, such as is accepted by all creeds, and who maintain that all which Christ taught by word, example, and precept shall be taught the child and insisted on in practice, at a great sacrifice, submit to a double taxation, and provide for their children schools where not only religious instruction is given, but where with the best schooling in secular studies the education is religious. The stand taken in this matter by the Catholic Church is at present receiving favorable comment from non-Catholic sources and the public press. I have here a collection of extracts from the words of Protestant ministers and the press. I should like to read several of them, but I will ask only the time for reading one taken from the Brooklyn Eagle of June 1, 1902:

Right and wrong in the affairs of conduct are not matters of instinct; they have to be learned, just as really in fact as history or handicrafts. Is this knowledge being imparted to our children in any efficient way and by efficient teachers? Is the public school doing it? Is the church doing it? Are fathers and mothers doing it? We are compelled to say no to all these queries. \* \* \* The truth is, we are taking for granted a moral intelligence which does not exist. We are leaning upon it, depending upon it, trusting to it, and it is not there.

Our whole machinery of education from the kindergarten up to the university is perilously weak at this point. We have multitudes of youths and grown men and women who have no more intelligent sense of what is right and wrong than had so many Greeks in the time of Alcibiades.

The great Roman Catholic Church is unquestionably right in the contention that the whole system as it now exists is morally a negation. \* \* \* The great company of educators and the whole American community need to be sternly warned that if morality can not be specifically taught in the public schools without admitting religious dogma, then religious dogma may have to be taught in them. For righteousness is essential to a people's very existence. And righteousness does not come by nature any more than reading and writing does. \* \* \* We are within measurable distance of the time when society may for its own sake go on its knees to any factor which can be warranted to make education compatible with and inseparable from morality, letting that factor do it on its own terms and teach therewith whatever it lists.

In connection with the subject under discussion, I am glad to be able to say that during the last six or seven years a remarkable change has come about in the attitude of the superintendents and principals of the State schools for the deaf as regards the Catholic children under their charge. There seems to be a better understanding of the rights and claims of the Catholic child, and I do not think there is any intentional effort made at proselytizing, such as we had occasion to call attention to on a former occasion. Perhaps many of you will remember that we had a little discussion on the matter in 1903. The change that has taken place convinces me that the superintendents and principals are willing, with true American fairness and justice, even at the cost of some inconvenience, to do all they can to afford the children under their charge facilities to practice the faith of their parents. I feel confident that if Catholic clergymen could be had to look after the interests of the Catholic children in the State institutions for the deaf every right and privilege would be accorded them, as is done in several institutions.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. I would like to have some expression on a question—from a purely schoolroom standpoint—which has given me no little concern; that is, the best literature to use in the classes. We are at present using the International Lesson Papers, the advanced and primary, but they have not been just as satisfactory as we might wish, especially in the primary work. Is there any teacher who knows of any really interesting primary paper that is in use in schools?

Dr. DOBYNS. I can refer the gentleman to a book that is not only intensely interesting for a primary class, but to the intermediate classes and to the advanced classes. It is a book that is as simple as a primer and more profound than Plato. It is illuminated with truth from the beginning to the end and should be in every school for the deaf in the country for Sunday instruction. That book is the Bible.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. That is very true; but there are very few of us capable of understanding that book. I do not wish to get into any discussion of the qualifications of the Bible. We can't take the Bible and put it into the hands of fourth-grade children.

Dr. DOBYNS. We use the Bible with our children in all the grades. The teachers use the literature in preparing the lessons; they take the Scripture given in the Sunday-school lesson, and take and study it—and nothing else—from the Bible.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. We study that, but with helps.

Dr. DOBYNS. The teachers have the helps, but the pupils do not.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Is there any teacher here who can give me the name of a better little primary paper than the one published by the International Sunday School Union?

Miss LAURA C. SHERIDAN. If the Word of God is true, the most important thing is the education of the heart. In the Bible we read: "This is Life Eternal, that they might know Thee." This knowledge of God is the most important phase of education. If our pupils do not get this education in school life, when will they ever receive it? The chances for them to receive it are far less than those of a hearing child if they do not obtain it in school life. All the ministers are telling us that those people who do not come to God before they are 25 are not likely to come at all. I want to tell you that ever since I was a young girl I have been possessed of this desire more than any other: That when the pupils went out of my care they would know God, not simply know about Him, not merely have been taught something about the Word of God, but that they would have been brought into personal contact with God; that they themselves would have come to know God as their best friend, and to feel and realize in their personal experience that He was a better friend than any earthly friend; that they would go to God with all their needs. This is the most important thing in the question before us. I do not see why every believer can not meet on this ground: That the Bible is made to bring us into fellowship with God, to realize, each one personally, "He is my friend. I can, will, and do go to Him concerning all things in my life."

A MEMBER. The Michigan school has a very good book named "Great Truths Simply Told," written, I think, by W. G. Jenkins, for primary work.

A MEMBER. The best book I know of is published by W. A. Wilds, of Boston.

MR. LAURENS WALKER. How many schools attempt to follow the International Sunday School Work, not as an individual study of the Bible, but as followed by the Sunday schools throughout the country? How many try to keep in touch with what other Sunday schools are doing? We do it at home, and I have been criticized for doing it.

Responses came from all parts of the room, eliciting the fact that the Lessons were used by the schools of Florida, Washington, Arkansas, Oregon, Oklahoma, Iowa, North Carolina, Nebraska, Missouri, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Mississippi, Indiana, and Manitoba.

REV. FATHER MOELLER. I suppose most of you know our position in regard to the Bible. What do you mean by the Bible? Whose authority has that Bible you are using? I would like to know for information what Bible is being used?

MR. CLARKE, of Washington. King James's Bible.

MISS YALE. In our own school the Douay Bible is used by all Roman Catholic children.

MR. HARRIS TAYLOR. I would like to ask Dr. N. F. Walker, who bears the distinguished honor of being the father of his sons, and has other honors, what he would do in regard to the responsibility of the superintendent in a school that is not so practically uniform in its tutelage as his own. We will take a not necessarily hypothetical case—a school that has quite a large percentage of Jews, quite a large number of Roman Catholics, and quite a number of Protestants. Would he feel it his duty to assume the responsibility of the religious instruction of all those various children?

DR. N. F. WALKER. I think I stated that fairly when I spoke of the Jew boy sent to me. The father asked me if I could make a Jew out of that child and educate him, and I told him that when the child was old enough to comprehend, able to understand language, I thought I could explain to him the faith of his fathers so that he would probably remain a Jew. That I had no wish to wean him away from his religion.

MR. HARRIS TAYLOR. I can appreciate the isolated case, but suppose you had such a number; how would you proceed?

DR. N. F. WALKER. I would do the best I could and turn them over to the leaders in their respective beliefs, if they wished it to be done.

MR. HARRIS TAYLOR. I think a great many principals have such a small number to disturb the regularity of the average pupil that the problem does not arise. I think it a very serious thing to undertake a religious and moral instruction that would tend to alienate a child from his inherited faith. If I knew absolutely which one was right it would be a very easy problem.

MR. LAURENS WALKER. I don't think it is necessary to go into the details of that subject of what this one and that one believes. I can take a child and instruct him along moral lines and leave the religious work to some one else.

DR. N. F. WALKER. With the exception of this case we do not have to do with the Jew and Catholic in our school. We deal simply with Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, and Congrega-

tionalists. It is a matter of giving them Christian instruction. I do not, of course, know anything about such a condition of affairs as exists in New York.

Mr. HARRIS TAYLOR. To me it seems my duty to provide facilities for these children to receive instruction from those of the faith of their fathers, but I can not assume the direct responsibility for the religious instruction under such diverse conditions. I do endeavor to provide all that is required by the respective churches for the instruction of those children by the best persons that the various creeds can provide, but beyond that I do not see how I can assume any responsibility whatever for the religious instruction of the children.

Mr. SWILER. It has occurred to me, as I listened to the discussion, that the trend of the discussion is rather narrowing its lines to a sectarianism bias for methods of instruction instead of keeping on the broader basis which has for its foundation a true religious faith striving for purity of mind and heart and the exemplification of those great principles which commend themselves alike to our Catholic brother here and our Baptist brother yonder.

Do not neglect the great principles taught by the Savior of the world, those essential principles of the Christian religion common to all—meekness, gentleness, purity, and helpfulness. I am glad to say that for many years this institution has given the largest opportunity to all children brought under its care to have such instruction from their spiritual advisers as their parents desired, without any restraint at all.

Institutions established by the State do not inquire as to the sectarian proclivities of the families from which the children come, but insist upon teaching those truths upon which we may build sound principles of morality.

Dear friends, it is not what we teach or what we say; it is largely what we do; it is example. It is the example that we as teachers set before our pupils. It is the consistency of the life we exemplify in their presence that has to do most with the developing of truth in which we all unite for a common purpose and which is our common desire for them. It is true, and pity 'tis 'tis true, that there are those in our schools not fitted to teach religion; who are not themselves believers in the Christian religion. They may succeed in inculcating cardinal principles of truth, of honesty, purity of life, and sincerity, but you may teach all you please and what you please and still fail unless you exemplify these things in your life and are consistent in them. You do well to remember that the keen eyes of these children are upon you always, by night or by day, in school or out. You are constantly looked to by them and imitated to such an extent that they largely model their lives by what you teach them and by what you show them. And I would say that true sincerity and honesty of purpose are the fundamental principles we have to insist upon.

There has come to my mind a legend,  
A thing I had half forgot;  
And whether I read it or dreamed it,  
Ah, well, it matters not;  
It is said that in Heaven at twilight  
A great bell softly swings,  
And one may listen and harken  
To the beautiful music that rings.



If he puts from his heart all anger,  
 All passion and pain and strife,  
 Heartache and weary longing  
 That throbs in the pulses of life;  
 If he thrusts from his heart's inner chamber  
 All thought of sinful things,  
 He can hear in the solemn twilight  
 How the bells of the angels ring.  
 And I thought there was in this legend,  
 If we open our hearts to see,  
 Somewhat of an inner meaning,  
 My friends, for you and me.  
 Let us look in our hearts and question,  
 Can pure thoughts enter in  
 To a heart that is already  
 Crowded with thoughts of sin?  
 And when we have looked and questioned,  
 Let us look again and see  
 If the twilight bells of the angels  
 Can not ring for us—you and me.

Mr. McALEVY. It seems to me that this question of religious instruction is not such a great problem after all if we will but follow the principle of doing unto others what we would have others do unto us. The superintendents, officers, and trustees of our institutions stand in the parental relation to the children, and, doing so, it is their bounden duty to see that those children receive religious instruction. It is very well to educate a child, but we must bear in mind—we can not forget it—that these boys and girls have immortal souls and that they must be taught the truths of religion as their parents understand them.

Prof. Walker, I think, has very ably presented the situation, and the matter of solving the problem resolves itself practically into consideration of the three denominations to care for, Catholic, Protestant, and Jew. The Catholic Church is jealous of the instruction of her children and will not for a moment tolerate any interference with their proper instruction. The same may be said of the Jew. The branches of the Protestant religion, being somewhat varied, but all tending to the same general belief, can be grouped under one head, and the children can be instructed by a representative of some one of the denominations and you will find it will be satisfactory to the parents. Nonsectarian teaching of religion may be satisfactory to Protestants, but it is not satisfactory to Jews and Catholics.

In Rhode Island the attorney general of the State has decided that as a matter of law the board stands in the parental relation. And I have with me an extract from a decision he gave two or three years ago, which I will read, with your permission. This is the opinion of the attorney general of the State of Rhode Island regarding the religious instruction of children in State institutions. It has a particular bearing on the institution for the deaf. He decides:

That it is the duty of the board of trustees to provide such influences as will lead to an honest upright living, the State so far as possible, holding to them the parental relation. \* \* \*

In my opinion, your board, without question, has the power, if it shall deem such a course necessary, to vote to send any number of the school's children away from the home for the purpose of attending religious services, and to vote further that some person, although not identified with the board or management of the home, shall have charge of them during such absence.



The board, representing the State, by statute stands in the parental relation to the children in the home. It is clearly the duty of persons in that relation to see that children receive religious instruction.

In carrying out the decision of the attorney general in Rhode Island the board of trustees unanimously voted that whatever plan of instruction was presented by our superintendents and approved by the church authorities would be satisfactory to the board. A plan was drawn up by our principal which was satisfactory to the Catholic Church authorities and was unanimously adopted by our board. The plan provides that the Catholic children of our institution shall be sent to the church designated by the bishop of that diocese as the church for the Catholic deaf. It also provides that instruction in the Catholic catechism shall be given at that institution by those authorized by the bishop of that diocese. It provides that the Catholic children shall attend mass on holy days and that every facility shall be given the clergy to prepare those children for confirmation and first communion.

Our board has also prepared a plan for the instruction of Protestant children that is satisfactory to those interested at the present time. I understand that there is soon to be built in the city of Providence a Protestant church, designated as the Church for the Deaf, and we will give to that church the same consideration we have given to the authorities of the Catholic Church.

Our friends of the Hebrew faith have their children cared for as they wish them cared for. They have a representative on our board at the present time and their children will be allowed to receive such instruction as the rabbi of the nearest synagogue may provide for. I think if we would simply apply to the instruction of the children the principle we would wish applied to ourselves and do unto others as we would have them do to us the problem would be very easily solved, and you will find it will be satisfactory to the parents.

Mr. SWILER. Some years ago the State of Wisconsin decided that the Bible might not be used in the public schools of the State, but so far that restriction has never been applied to this school, nor to my knowledge has it ever been applied to any school for the deaf in the country.

Mr. CLARKE, of Washington. Unfortunately, Washington is an exception. We have the same law there. Not one cent of money raised by taxation shall be spent for any religious training. The Bible training used in the Washington School for the Deaf is actively opposed to the law every day in the year. The Bible and religious literature used is bought at the expense of the superintendent.

Mr. STEWART, of Oklahoma. I believe this audience has been here as long as it desires to stay, and the subject assigned to me was treated briefly but most excellently by the lady from Arkansas, so I sincerely hope I may be excused from reading my paper. There is another exercise along entirely different lines and I think it would be more profitable to pass to that.

Dr. Fay moved that the paper "Proper system of bible reading arranged for different ages and abilities of children," by Mr. A. A. Stewart, of Oklahoma, be spread upon the report of the proceedings of the convention.

Motion seconded and unanimously adopted.

Mr. Stewart's paper was as follows:

Fellow workers of the convention, ladies, and gentlemen, I do not know of any satisfactory system of Bible reading arranged for different ages and abilities of children, either deaf or hearing; but I do recognize the importance of systematic Bible teaching for both these classes. Teachers of the deaf are more responsible than are teachers of the hearing for such instruction. Hearing children receive nearly all their religious training at home; but deaf children, during the entire growing period of their lives, except for the summer visits at home, are under our care and instruction. Often, I fear we do not attach sufficient importance to this matter. Teaching the Bible is a Sunday duty; it comes altogether outside the regular hours of school work, and by both teacher and pupil is likely to be discharged somewhat carelessly and indifferently. I shudder when I think of the responsibilities which the heads of deaf schools must assume for the spiritual welfare of their children. True, most of these are State schools, and nothing sectarian should be taught; but, nevertheless, in that great day we shall be called to account for the souls of the little ones committed to us from year to year.

In the presence of men who have given their lives to work among the deaf, some of whom are preaching the Gospel to them, it would be presumptuous for me, comparatively a beginner, to undertake to lay down a proper system of Bible reading for our children. I shall only offer a few suggestions, in the hope that some one more competent may work out the problem.

The various religious publishing houses offer almost everything imaginable in the way of helps to Bible study; but these follow the international lesson course, and I do not think it is wise to use this course except in the advanced grades, if at all. A series of graded lessons should be prepared that would present, in chronological order, the facts of the Bible, and more especially of the gospel, in such simple, progressive form that by the time the child left school it would have gained a comprehensive knowledge of the great book of books.

Instruction in primary classes would necessarily be of the simplest kind, scarcely more than suggestions about God as a spirit, who lives always, who is everywhere, whose home is in Heaven, who is almighty and all wise, who is love, who is holy, whose son is Jesus who died for us, whose book is the Bible, adding some little lessons on morals and manners. Later these children should learn sentence and verse prayers, also the doxology, the gloria, and the Lord's prayer. These may be followed, in higher grades, with the Ten Commandments, the twenty-third Psalm, simple stories of the kings and prophets, of Joseph and Mary, and other New Testament characters, as well as of the miracles and parables, together with the tragic story of the Cross, and what it means to them.

The older classes, having gone over the above, will have become interested in the great book. Teach them its general and subdivisions, have them commit to memory the names of the books in both Testaments; study each Testament separately, its history, its geography, its peoples, its customs, its literature; correlate these with one another and with the history, geography, and peoples of Bible lands to-day, so as to vitalize it all, that it may seem very real rather than ancient and visionary. Give special attention to the New Testament—its four biographies of Jesus, its history of the first Disciples, its letters to the churches, teaching Christians how to live, and its visions of the New Jerusalem.

And then, why should there not be stated examinations, as if this work were worth the doing. The modern Sunday school has its examination periods and its promotions. All this can be done for our children without a suggestion of denominationalism.

The outlines above proposed, when worked into lessons, must be stated in the simplest terms. The chief difficulty of the deaf in Bible study, as in other studies, is in understanding the language. True, the language of the Bible is the simplest and most direct of any literature; yet for hearing children we reduce its stories and its facts to still simpler forms, and there is more necessity for this in the case of deaf children.

In the Oklahoma school we use supplies from the American Sunday School Union, including Little People's Lesson Pictures, lesson leaves, primary quarterlies, papers, etc. Our teachers are provided with the Sunday School Journal and Bible Student's Magazine. We use these because nothing better is offered, though there may be many lesson helps just as good. But any teacher of the deaf, with the aid of a Bible history and a few other helps, can prepare a series of lessons for her grade, with thought and language much better adapted

to the understandings of her children than are any of the helps now on the market.

There is no place where hectograph books may be used to better advantage than in the presentation of Bible lessons. In both the Old and New Testaments there is a wealth of material, illustrating almost every phase of human life. The children may not at first learn the setting of the story. To attempt to teach it might confuse them. But in after years it will be a pleasant surprise when, in reading the Bible, they come across these stories learned in childhood. Here, as elsewhere, pictures will greatly facilitate the work of teaching. A series of Perry pictures, from the Annunciation to the Crucifixion, will give an admirable basis for many lessons. A thoughtful teacher will gather from countless sources illustrations of Bible themes.

In much of the Bible teaching, with both deaf and hearing children, too many things are assumed to be known. In many Sunday schools the study of the lesson is little more than a farce and much of the instruction is beyond the comprehension of the children. Let us then appreciate the importance of Bible study and give it that place in our school program and that prayerful attention which will insure the best results. In some schools the Bible lesson is taken up Friday evening at the close of the study hour, when the children are wearied with the day's grind and perhaps half asleep. In others an hour is set apart on Saturday, when the boys' heads are full of thoughts about baseball, fishing, or skating, and when the girls are thinking of fancywork, basket ball, or some duty in connection with the literary society. A better plan is to prepare the Bible lesson in the classroom Sunday morning under the direction of the teacher, the hour and a half to be equally divided in the preparation and the recitation.

Such a course of Bible study as I have suggested, together with the other spiritual influences which prevail in our schools, should produce a healthy religious atmosphere. The morning chapel service, the Sunday school, the Sunday lecture, the Endeavor societies, the daily example of officers and teachers, even the discipline of the school, should contribute to this end; and as a result of these influences many of our children should be converted. One of the most gratifying experiences in the school, as in the home, is to see children confessing their faith in the Christ. This is the legitimate fruit of proper teaching and proper living.

The faith of our children is unlimited, and they are always interested in Bible themes. Their unresponsive ears have shut out of their lives much of the sin of the world and made their hearts peculiarly subject to the appeals of the Gospel. They will have little opportunity to intelligently confess the Savior after they leave school.

Every child should have its own Bible. During the year I have read somewhere of a most beautiful custom in one of our schools of giving to each pupil, at a certain time in the course, a copy of the New Testament. The influence of such a custom is incalculable. Throughout the whole of its school life that Testament will be the child's dearest possession. When the child, grown to mature years, shall have gone out into a more or less lonely and unsympathetic world, when all other books shall have been forgotten and other lessons unlearned, that Testament will have become a school relic, reminding its owner not only of the face and love of the donor and the circumstances of the giving, but enabling him to recall countless incidents and experiences which are among his most precious memories. I prize most highly a 25-cent Testament given me last Christmas by the three boys in our A class. It is greatly to their credit that, in the search for some token of esteem that would please me, they should have made such a selection. Long after other and more costly gifts shall have been forgotten will I, with increasing pleasure, read that little book, regard its inscription, and recall the faces of those boys.

Our older pupils must be taught how to read the Bible intelligently. This will not be difficult with children who have been given some such course as I have suggested. They will have learned something of its general structure, the history, law, prophecy, and poetry of the Old Testament and the relation of these to the New Testament; they will have become interested in the great characters of both Testaments, the tragedies there recorded, the beautiful examples of faith as well as the results of faithlessness, and the matchless stories of human interest which are told in the sacred pages. From beginning to end, the fact must be everywhere emphasized that the supreme object in all Bible study is the development of character—the making of noble men and women. Its history, its literature, its characters, must be made to mean more

than these things mean in other books. It must be presented as the reservoir of all those influences which best develop the highest types of manhood and womanhood. Its Jesus must be offered as the living, loving, saving Christ—dear beyond all earthly dear ones. Our teaching should lead to a simple faith, a cheerful obedience, and an unflinching trust in this Redeemer of humanity, whose precious word must become their daily bread.

When these and many other things too numerous to name here shall have been learned, the Bible will no longer be to them a closed book, but will be the very voice of God as it has spoken to humanity in all the ages, and which becomes more and more precious to every faithful, reverent reader as the years lead him into eternity.

Paper on "Management of disobedient or truant children, bodily punishment or appeals to conscience—how performed?" by Dr. Patterson, was read by Prof. H. E. Day, as follows:

My theme, though not of my own choosing, is "Management of disobedient or truant children, bodily punishment or appeals to conscience—how performed." We can not face this question without being conscious of the fact that there is a decided change of attitude in relation to the matter and manner of discipline in school.

The old belief in the saving grace of Solomon's rod is gone; the rod is now regarded as a relic of barbarism, and discredited is the sort of teaching that harps on obedience and endeavors by force of rule and rod to secure good conduct. Austerity of authority is not popular; the teacher is no longer the master and autocrat that he was; he is counselor and friend instead. In place of force there is a kindly helpfulness, an appeal to manliness and reason.

Such is the new spirit that has come into school management in this day and age. A dream it was of Aristotle when he said that "the government of the child should be kingly," and the educational reformers all the way down from his age looked forward to it as

"A consummation  
Devoutly to be wished."

The advent of this renaissance in discipline has set in motion a sharp lookout for ways and means to solve this problem. There is no question that out of this active pursuit of the truth will evolve some definite standard of efficiency. Of the schemes that have been tried to more or less extent with encouraging results are self-government by the pupils themselves, self-reporting, putting the pupils on their honor, and sending good instead of bad pupils to the office. In a recent number of Leslie's Weekly Charles T. Heaslip gives an interesting account of a method in vogue at the Washington Irving Girls' High School in New York. It is called "a reciprocal relation of service, respect, and affection." The teachers there enter into all the student activities with real enthusiasm and encouragement, and the pupils do the same for them. They attend the faculty meetings and have a voice in them for the general good of the school. And in McClure's Magazine for May, 1911, Josephine Tozier, in an article entitled "An educational wonder worker, the methods of Maria Montessori," gives an account of a new ideal called "discipline for liberty." There are in this method no corrections, no rewards, no punishments, no interventions, but a wise and patient guidance of "autoeducation." It seems to bear out the remark of Rousseau that "the teacher's province is less to instruct than to guide;" that "he must not lay down precepts, but teach his pupils to discover them."

The public attitude in the matter of corporal punishment has imposed no small burden on teachers. It has taxed ingenuity in the art of managing, given a wonderful impulse to child study, sharpened tact in touching the springs of human nature, and stimulated skill in turning the current of discipline into smooth channels. The burden is, however, made lighter where there is an intelligent and helpful cooperation from the home, an efficient administration of the juvenile court, and a fearless discharge of duty on the part of the truant officer.

We, the teachers of the deaf, however, have a heavier burden to carry on our shoulders. Our pupils, a majority of whom are spoiled children at home, by reason of pity evoked by their misfortune and of the lack of understanding how to handle them, come to us with moral germs and possibilities undeveloped or with very vague ideas of moral obligation. This emphasizes the necessity for making a well-defined and systematic course in moral instruction the corner



stone of endeavor if we are to meet our duty in helping and guiding our pupils to gain the strength of character by which they may distinguish between good and evil, cultivate a habit and disposition of obedience, and take a pride in practicing what Emerson calls "that finest of the fine arts—a beautiful behavior." The lessons should be made practical and attractive, so as to raise the pupils to that consciousness which only can beget the desire and power to translate them into deeds.

There can be but little danger of our failing if we would include in our creed and practice the spirit of the policy of Supt. J. W. Jones, as outlined in his instructions to his assistant matrons on the 20th of September, 1910, at the opening of school:

"Discipline is absolutely necessary, but punishment is not. In fact, punishment more often results from a lack of the right kind of discipline than it is a means to it. It is the heart and the spirit which control. Words and rules amount to but little compared with the heart and mental vibrations which constantly pass from the governor to the governed. How necessary it is, then, that these vibrations be of the richer and nobler sort, that they may carry to the hearts of others the noblest and best thoughts and impulses."

No specific rules can be laid down for managing disobedient or truant children; the rule must be made to fit the individual. The cardinal principle is that we should exercise a habit of taking into consideration the temperament of the offender, looking well into the cause of the offense, and finding out just what kind of an appeal will go right home to the heart. Never should we fall into the mistake of making an appeal when we are in anger or the child is laboring under excitement, but we should wait until we are cool and can clear up the atmosphere.

Would we make our discipline efficacious? We must get an insight into the problems of child education, put ourselves in close touch with our pupils, gain their good will and confidence, and make a study of their strong and weak points. We should avoid appeals to the fears and passions of offenders; only appeals to the sense of right and the right standards of manhood should be employed. In the case of younger pupils the discipline may be made effective through gestures and facial expressions of pleasure or displeasure. A kind yet firm use of the principle of isolation in the classroom may be made productive of object lessons in conduct. With children of more advanced development, stories with a moral, appeals to the love of approbation, and a judicious deprivation of certain privileges of the schoolroom may bring good results. The conversion of the larger and more advanced pupils may be effected through the use of suggestion and heart-to-heart talks in private. In appeals to their sense of honor and of right, we should refrain from doing too much thinking for them; they should be helped to gain strength through a habit of drawing their own inferences and reasoning out their own problems.

By pursuing such a course faithfully and conscientiously we surely will broaden out, and our work will fit in with that fine characterization of education by Hannah More:

"I call education not that which is made up of shreds and patches of useless cuts, but that which inculcates principles, polishes taste, regulates temper, cultivates reason, subdues the passions, directs the feelings, habituates to reflection, trains to self denial, and, more especially, that which refers all actions, feelings, sentiments, tastes, and passions to the love and fear of God."

Mr. McFARLANE. If we would pray for our pupils I think it would make a difference. The conduct of a class is greatly changed by our prayers. I think if we would pray for them one by one it would have an influence. The substance of some of our sermons to the deaf is, "Be good; be good." We should pray for each one of them and teach them that Christ can help them.

Dr. Argo moved the adjournment of the convention until 9 a. m. Monday morning.

The motion was seconded by Mr. Morrison and unanimously carried.

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## MISCELLANEOUS SECTION AND GALLAUDET COLLEGE.

MONDAY, JULY 10, 1911.

## MORNING SESSION.

## PROGRAM, FIFTH DAY.

9 a. m. Called to order by the president. Conference on "The ideal number of pupils in oral and manual classes," directed by Mr. J. W. Blattner, Texas.

9.30 a. m. Conference on "How to make the school homelike," directed by Mr. G. D. Euritt, Virginia.

10 a. m. Conference on "What shall be done with the feeble-minded deaf?" directed by Miss Edith Fitzgerald, Wisconsin.

10.30 a. m. Conference on "Teachers as examples for scholars," directed by Mrs. Sylvia C. Balis, Canada.

11 a. m. Paper: "Preparation for Gallaudet College"; (a) in Latin, Mr. A. B. Fay; (b) in English, Dr. J. B. Hotchkiss; (c) in Algebra, Dr. A. G. Draper. Paper: "Gallaudet College and the congenitally deaf student," by Mr. H. E. Day.

11.30 a. m. Conference on "The value of physical training and school athletics," directed by Mr. Robert L. Erd, Michigan.

12 m. Business meeting.

8 p. m. Social entertainment.

The convention was called to order at 9 o'clock by Dr. Gallaudet and opened with prayer by the Rev. Philip Hasenstab, of Chicago.

Dr. Clarke, of Michigan, requested the appointment by the Chair of a committee of five to make the nominations for chairman and leaders of the different sections and also asked that after the appointment the committee be allowed to retire and proceed with their work, so that it could be gotten in readiness for the business meeting.

The motion was seconded and carried, and the president appointed Dr. Clarke, of Michigan; Mr. Bangs, of North Dakota; Mr. Gruver, of New York; Dr. Burt, of Pennsylvania; and Miss Wettstein, of Milwaukee, to retire and make nominations for the business meeting to be held at 12 o'clock.

Dr. GALLAUDET. The Chair has a communication to present before we proceed. It is a letter from the Commissioner of Education communicating to him that there is to be a congress of instructors of the deaf and those interested, in Rome, from the 22d to the 25th of August of this year. He writes at the request of the State Department, which has been asked by the Government of Italy to name delegates to this congress at Rome. The commissioner is ready to appoint anyone who will go at his own expense. Mr. Brown, the Commissioner of Education, suggested that I bring it to the notice of the convention in the possibility that one or more persons might be disposed to go and attend this conference. If so, if they will communicate with Mr. Elmer P. Brown, at Washington, they will receive a commission from the Government to represent our Government at Rome.

The president requested Dr. Dobyns to relieve him and to preside at the meeting.

Dr. DOBYNS. Before proceeding to the business of the session, I wish to announce that Miss Yale will give some talks on the Bell System of Visible Speech in this room, one at 3 o'clock this afternoon and one at 8.15 Wednesday morning.

I want to present to you a member from a distance, Mr. Silvado, of Brazil, and I hope you will talk with him and give him all the assistance you can.

Mr. SILVADO. I came here from a far country. I am glad to meet you, and I thank your chairman for the honor of the introduction. [Applause.]

Dr. DOBYNS. We will now proceed to the first conference on the program.

Mr. BLATTNER. Ladies and gentlemen, I have looked up statistics in regard to the various schools, as I was able to find them in the annals and school reports, and drawn some facts and deductions from them. I have written out a few preliminary remarks, which I shall read. I will say that this subject is not one of my selection, but was assigned to me. When I first looked at it I thought it too insignificant to require half an hour's discussion, but the more I looked into it the more I discovered it contained, and an hour could well be devoted to its discussion. I think it a more appropriate discussion for the conference than for a body of teachers, but as our honorable chairman assigned it to me I will have to take it.

Dr. DOBYNS. Much as I dislike to do so, I shall be compelled to rule that the reading of this paper is out of order, unless it is the wish of the convention to hear it.

Mr. Rothert, of Iowa, moved that the convention hear the paper, which motion was seconded and unanimously carried.

#### THE IDEAL NUMBER OF PUPILS IN ORAL AND MANUAL CLASSES.

By Mr. J. W. BLATTNER, of Texas.

This is a most important subject. Indeed, with the exception of the moral and religious questions discussed yesterday afternoon, I believe the subject to be presented by President Hall, that of the educational foundation necessary to make a successful oral teacher; the one to be presented by Mr. Harris Taylor, that of the normal training of oral teachers; and this, the proportion of teachers to pupils essential to the attainment of the best possible results, are among the most important questions before this convention. The antiquated idea of any old schoolroom and a bench on which are seated a Mark Hopkins at one end and a willing pupil at the other is by no means obsolete in the force of its truth. Of what value are fine, commodious, comfortable buildings and splendid equipment if a school is not provided with thoroughly educated and specially prepared teachers, possessed of a high order of teaching ability, and plenty of them? Again, of what avail is it to have such teachers but so few in number that they are mentally and physically overwhelmed by the volume of work pouring in upon them? The question before us really embodies the other two I have mentioned, and in the natural order of sequence, disassociated from the rest of our program, would follow them in its discussion. The other two questions, it is true, have to do with the preparation of oral teachers specifically, but the groundwork for the making of a successful oral teacher, I take it, is, in its essential features, the same as that in the making of a successful manual teacher, and the necessary qualities of mind and heart and disposition are the same. Only the superstructure of special training differs, and those special features are to be accentuated by the discussions to be led, later on, by the above two gentlemen. The special preparation of manual teachers is given no place on the program, perhaps for two reasons—the fact that it is an old subject, touched upon by almost every pedagogic question discussed, and the further fact, of which I am glad and proud, that our schools are coming more and more to place the work of their manual departments into the hands of thoroughly educated deaf men and women, who through their whole educational period, with eyes wide open and minds alert, watched the processes of their education. They are markedly well prepared to take a class when they finish

their education at college. Now, it is not my wish to take up too much of the time allotted to this discussion in these preliminary remarks, but I do want to impress upon the heads of our schools, with all the emphasis possible, the importance of a most serious consideration of this question. I have taken some little pains to look up the records and collect a few facts bearing upon this subject. The statistics in the Annals and school reports have been drawn upon. According to the last tabulated statement in the Annals the size of oral classes runs from an average of nine and a fraction to an average of thirteen and a fraction in American State schools, and that of manual classes from an average of six and a fraction to twenty. In a majority of the schools that I looked up the oral classes average over 10 pupils to the class, the general average for all State schools being approximately 11, and that of manual classes a little larger. Of 20 schools, the average size of oral classes in more than half is slightly greater than it was 10 years ago, in 2 it is the same, and in the balance slightly less.

There has been a reduction of the general average of pupils to teacher in American schools, in both manual and oral departments, but the reduction is so slight that it is hardly worth mentioning. It is proper to state here that the figures as given in the Annals may not always mean the same thing as to different schools, and hence can not be entirely relied upon in deducing a set of uniform statistics. The question in my mind, while drawing upon these figures, was always whether the number of teachers reported for each school represents that many regular classes. For instance, a number of schools have blind-deaf pupils, and the teachers of these pupils are doubtless in each case enumerated, while they may represent but a single pupil to a teacher. In the Texas school we have two such pupils represented by one teacher, and in times past we have had three represented by three teachers. When given in among the other teachers it is plain to be seen that the average of pupils to teachers in the regular classes of a school so reporting them appears smaller than it really is. I believe there should be a separate table for the blind-deaf and their teachers. Again, the superintendent or principal is reported among the teachers, and the question occurring to me is whether any of them are enumerated as oral teachers. Again, in some schools literary teachers also teach industries. There is no means of telling whether in such cases they are given in once or twice. The class reports published in the school papers are perhaps more reliable, and from those examined I am inclined to believe that the averages in the number of pupils to teacher are greater in many cases than appear from the figures in the annals. But these figures are approximately correct, and for purposes of comparison perhaps will serve well enough. A very significant fact discovered is that the reduction in size of manual classes has been greater than that of oral classes. This is due, perhaps, to two facts, namely, that the manual departments of many schools have grown constantly smaller, making it more difficult to classify the pupils in them, and that the pupillage in them, being largely cullings, require more painstaking work than the brighter and more apt pupils who remain in the oral department. In class reports, as published in school papers, I would notice such glaring facts as six or eight pupils in a manual class, while there would be from 10 to 13 in the oral classes of the same school. Another thing noticed was the identity of number; one school would have a long string of classes having nine pupils; another a string of dozens; and still another long list of thirteens. Whether this fact was accidental or whether the exigencies of money and space had anything to do with it is not apparent. The ever-present and embarrassing fact is that classes are too large in most of our schools to secure the best results, and the question is how to reduce them. Can we materially reduce the size of our classes and still maintain or improve the efficiency of our teaching force by paying salaries that will secure and retain good teachers? We should at least make every possible effort, even though we allow the physical interests of the school to fall behind somewhat. Now, in Texas our classes have grown steadily larger the past few years, for the reason that the liberality of our lawmakers has not kept pace with the rapid growth of our population. Indeed, we Texans are short on buildings and number of teachers, and distressingly so on salaries, but, like the ox, long on endurance. You will tell me, "Physician, heal thyself." That is what we are trying to do, but the patient is powerfully sick and will require delicate, painstaking—or pains-reducing, if you please—and perhaps long-time treatment. My advice is, do not follow our example but accept our preaching. Look upon us the rather as a sad and salutary example of hope deferred. I call the attention of my fellow workers, the superintendents and principals of sister schools, to my emaciated form and prematurely gray locks. This was

not always so, and when my picture appeared in the *Silent Worker* last year it called forth complimentary remarks by fellow editors as to my youthful appearance. Behold what a day may bring forth. Take warning, my friends, and see to it that your classes are speedily made smaller.

It is suggested that each speaker confine himself to the question assigned him and, if possible, avoid trenching upon other questions in the list below:

1. (a) What in your opinion is the ideal average number of pupils for an oral class? (b) The practicable average number?
2. (a) What do you consider the ideal average number of pupils for a manual class? (b) The practicable average number?
3. (a) Should a primary oral class be smaller or larger than a more advanced class? Why?
4. Which should be the smaller—an intermediate or higher oral class?
5. Should a primary manual class be smaller or larger than a more advanced manual class? Why?
6. Which should be smaller—an intermediate or a higher manual class?
7. Where there are two grades in an oral class, how many pupils can a teacher ordinarily handle?
8. In a manual class having two grades what should ordinarily be the maximum number of pupils?
9. Where a class has more than one grade, how would you keep the whole class constantly busy?
10. Is it advisable to have pupil teachers? If not, state your objections.
11. Would you give pupils in class anything for "busy work" not pertaining to the subject matter in hand?
12. Would you allow pupils to bring books, papers, or magazines into the class room to read during unoccupied moments?
13. Would you give teachers who have like grades, classes of different sizes in order the better to classify your school?
14. Would it be fair to the pupils and teacher to make a class composed of bright pupils larger than one of mediocre or dull pupils?
15. May classes be larger when taught by several teachers in rotation than when taught by one teacher? Why?
16. Should oral classes be smaller in a combined-system school than in a pure-oral school?
17. State briefly the reasons why a class of deaf children must be smaller than one of hearing children.

MR. BLATTNER. I will say I had a misconception of the manner of conducting this conference. I thought I was to sit up here and rest and let you work at answering the questions. I find I have to do the work myself.

DR. DOBYNS. If I had known he wouldn't understand it any better than that I never would have asked him.

MR. BLATTNER. Sorry I didn't bring his letters with me.

DR. FAX. Please answer questions 1 and 2:

What in your opinion is the ideal average number of pupils for an oral class? The practical average number?

What do you consider the ideal average number of pupils for a manual class? The practical average number?

MR. BLATTNER. Our ideals in regard to that matter are hard to attain and I do not think we ever will be able to attain the ideal number of pupils in either oral or manual classes. I would say the ideal number in oral classes would be about 4—enough to make it interesting for pupil and teacher and create that rivalry, that stimulus, necessary to the class. Some say the ideal class would be 1 pupil. I do not think so.

The practical number for an oral class could, I think, be placed lower than I have found the average number in schools. I stated in my paper it approximated 11. I think we could by effort on the part of the authorities of the institutions bring it down to an average of

8 throughout the country. I believe that would be a good working average.

Answering question 2, the average number in a manual class could be placed higher, as you all know. The teacher of a manual class can take more than the teacher of an oral class. I think the ideal number of a manual class would be about twice that of an oral class, or 8. If we had 11 in an oral class we should have 22 in a manual class, but if 4 in an oral class, we should have 8 in a manual. The practical number is about 12; in some cases less, perhaps down to 10 or 11.

Answering question 3, "Should a primary oral class be larger or smaller than a more advanced class? Why?" I think it should be smaller; the question of individual work is to be considered. The child comes without any conception of articulate sounds whatever. There is the preliminary work of developing the voice and teaching elementary sounds and the correction of the child's enunciation, and that requires a great deal of hard work and must be applied very largely to the individual members of the class and needs to be repeated and repeated, a thing not the case to so large an extent in the higher classes.

Answering question 4 as to "which should be the smaller—an intermediate or higher oral class," I think, for the same reason, that it should be smaller than an advanced class. There is still a great deal of special work to be done that can be dispensed with in the higher grades, and more repetition is required in the intermediate than in the advanced.

Question 5 is: "Should a primary manual class be larger or smaller than a more advanced manual class? Why?" I think it should be smaller, for the same reason that I stated with reference to the oral classes, that more individual work is required; and another thing, the teacher of a primary class, whether oral or manual, needs to get closer to the child, and I believe it is a more difficult matter for a teacher of a primary class to get close to the child than for the teacher of the higher classes.

In answer to question 6: "Which should be smaller, an intermediate or a higher manual class?" I think an intermediate manual class should be smaller than a higher manual class, but in practice the case is the reverse. As the class advances pupils drop out until the class becomes smaller. I believe an intermediate class should be smaller than an advanced class. Pupils have the work more in hand as they go on. They do not require so much individual work on the part of the teacher.

Question 7. Where there are two grades in an oral class, how many pupils can a teacher ordinarily handle?

I don't think he or she can handle as many as where there is but one grade, and the pupils well graded. Perhaps not more than half as many. If I had my way about it, and were compelled to have two grades in a class, I wouldn't have more than half as many in that class as in a well-graded class, for the reason that the two grades are practically two classes, and the attention of the teacher must necessarily be divided between the two grades.

Question 8. In a manual class having two grades, what should ordinarily be the maximum number of pupils?



If the maximum number of pupils in a class having one grade is 12, in a manual class where there are two grades the number should be less than that. The custom is, however, to throw the grades together in order to have the class larger, and such a condition is not productive of good results.

Question 9. Where a class has more than one grade, how would you keep the whole class constantly busy?

That is a question that is coming up all the time in our teachers' meetings and in the conferences between principals and teachers, and it is a question that puzzles and worries the teachers no little. I wish we could devise some good practical way of settling that question. I have asked here several other questions that will answer it in a way.

Question 10. Is it advisable to have pupil teachers? If not, state your objections.

I have no objections—that is, I do not object to having them if we can not do without. I would say keep the class busy by having pupil teachers, by having busy work pertaining to the subject matter in hand, and by allowing the pupils to bring books, papers, and magazines into the schoolroom.

Now, in answering question 10 I said "yes," but I meant "no." I mean, do not have pupil teachers if you can do without them. But sometimes where a teacher has two grades and is simply overwhelmed with work, if she has a bright pupil in a higher grade that can take charge of the lower grade and hear a recitation or correct some work, and she transfers that pupil and puts him to work, it saves time. The main objection is that it takes the pupil away from his legitimate work, but he is not losing time entirely; he is getting good practice, and it sometimes puts him on his mettle, makes him feel his importance, too much perhaps in some cases. But it makes him feel pride and will probably reflect on his work in the grade.

Question 11. Would you give pupils in class anything for busy work not pertaining to the subject matter in hand?

I would, for this reason: It is better to give them busy work pertaining to the matter in hand, but that requires extra time on the part of the teacher, which she doesn't have. If we hand a child a problem while we are hearing a recitation in arithmetic, we are expected to correct that. Then the teacher is expected to give that child some more individual attention. I think the plan is a good one to the extent that the teacher has time to do that. In arithmetic give the child another problem, or, in a recitation in geography, give him some other work along the same line or in history or in anything that may be in hand. But the time of the teacher often does not permit her to go over such work and correct it. There is the rub.

The idea I wished to bring out by this question is that pupils might be induced to do work supplementary to that in progress at the time without putting an extra burden upon the teacher. A stock of books upon the various branches taught should be kept in the schoolroom for this purpose. When the teacher is correcting problems in arithmetic, textbooks in arithmetic, containing answers to problems might be handed those who have finished their lesson, with assignment of problems involving principles previously taught or supplementing those the teacher is correcting.

If the lesson is one in geography, the pupils who have finished might be allowed to select books on geography different from the textbook and find how the subject is treated in them, or some interesting geographical readers abounding in illustrations might be given them, from which they could acquire valuable additional information about the country they are studying. If the lesson is one in history, they should have access to various authors, that they may learn about the period they are studying from different viewpoints. This plan is valuable not only as a timesaver but for the breadth of view it gives the pupil. The tendency is too much to narrowness.

Question 12. Would you allow pupils to bring books, papers, or magazines into the classroom to read during unoccupied moments?

I would; that is, if necessary. There are frequent unoccupied moments. Every teacher who has two grades or a poorly graded class knows there are times when a pupil is sitting idle wasting his time and disturbing others, and I would allow the children to bring in a paper, magazine, or book. But I would have every child to understand that the lesson must be attended to first, properly learned, and recited, not rushed through. He must show first that he has mastered the facts in the lesson; then give him a book, magazine, or paper.

Mr. WRIGHT. Suppose it is a primary grade and they do not understand the book or magazine. Would you let them look at the pictures?

Mr. BLATTNER. Yes; or give them toys or something else that will hold their attention. Frequently in a primary grade, where the teacher is giving her individual attention to a pupil, others would be doing nothing. She could have a number of pictures for them or could place some work on the board for them to copy; even if it is nothing more than copying it would be better than being idle; it would afford practice in handwriting.

Question 13. Would you give teachers who have like grades classes of different sizes in order the better to classify your school?

I would. I would vary the size of the class. There is sometimes objection on the part of the teachers. They feel that they are imposed upon if they are required to teach two or three more pupils than another. But rather than have them poorly graded I would have it that way.

Mr. BLEDSOE. I suggest that Mr. Blattner answer the rest of the question and then have discussion.

Question 14. Would it be fair to the pupils and teacher to make a class composed of bright pupils larger than one of mediocre or dull pupils?

I put that question in to hear others talk on it. That is a question upon which I would like to hear the opinions of others. I will say, though, that I think myself a class of bright pupils can well afford to be larger than a class of dull pupils. I think that the dull ones, requiring more attention on the part of the teacher, are probably entitled to more individual attention. The dull pupil is entitled to just as good attention as the bright one, and if it requires more time on the part of the teacher to give him equal attention to that given the bright one, I think he ought to get it. Looking at it from the standpoint of the teacher, every teacher here knows that it is much

more difficult and trying upon the teacher to teach a dull class, even though smaller, than a bright class. For that reason I think the dull class should be smaller than the bright class.

Question 15. May classes be larger when taught by several teachers in rotation than when taught by one teacher? Why?

That is a mooted question upon which people will differ. I think they may be larger for the reason that when we have what we call a rotary system we select the teachers for the different studies with reference to their ability in presenting each branch. If one is capable of taking certain branches and handling them with greater skill and dispatch than other branches, he can teach a larger number of pupils in a class.

Also in the correction of the work, if one is well up on the subject he does not require so much time in correcting work, consequently can correct work of more pupils.

Question 16. Should oral classes be smaller in a combined-system school than in a pure oral school?

Now the fat is in the fire. I believe they should. We may glory as much as we like as to the results of our oral work in our combined-system schools, but we must admit the fact that our pupils labor under great difficulties. In oral schools they have speech morning, noon, and night. I suppose they dream in speech. They have it in the schoolrooms, out of the schoolrooms, and in the shops. In our combined-system schools, where do we have it? We have it in our schoolrooms. On the outside we have it "if you please." If we please, or the pupils please; and as a rule they don't please. They need more practice in speech, and of course the smaller the class the greater the allotment of the time of the teacher to each pupil. For that reason I believe oral classes in our combined-system schools should be smaller than in oral schools.

Question 17. State briefly the reasons why a class of deaf pupils must be smaller than one of hearing pupils.

That is a question we are up against all the time when we ask for money of the legislatures. They say, "Why do you need so many teachers?" "What do you do with them?" "Why are your classes so small?" We tell them, but, knowing us, they do not believe us. I would like to have somebody else answer that question, so I could have it down in black and white to show to our legislators in Texas. Our classes need to be smaller. Every teacher, every superintendent knows it. Every teacher, whether she has taught in the public schools or in our own schools and observed what is going on, knows it. From the standpoint of the teacher, from the standpoint of the pupil, the classes ought to be smaller. We have a great deal of preliminary work to do; we have to lay the foundation of speech, the foundation of written language. Our pupils do not travel as rapidly as hearing and speaking children, consequently they ought to be given every possible advantage in the way of individual work. The work of the teacher of the deaf is more difficult, more trying. We had a teacher last year who had taught in the public schools. She told the superintendent at the close of school she was going to quit. When asked why, she said because the work was harder in our institution than in the public schools and the pay less. I would like to have these questions discussed by others.

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Mr. JONES. These sensible and practical questions have been correctly answered by Mr. Blattner in full, and I do not believe any of us could add anything. Therefore I move that this discussion be closed.

Mr. CLARKE, of Washington. Did I understand correctly in thinking you said the oral pupils in a combined-system school were under greater disadvantage than in the purely oral schools and required smaller classes?

Mr. BLATTNER. I did.

Mr. CLARKE. For what reason?

Mr. BLATTNER. What is your idea?

Mr. CLARKE. I believe it is to an advantage.

Mr. BLATTNER. You speak from the standpoint of the mental development of the child, and I was speaking from the standpoint of speech.

Dr. CROUTER. I do not know whether I correctly understood your answer to questions 13, 14, and 15, whether the size of the class should be dependent on the grade?

Mr. BLATTNER. Take any school. Suppose as the pupils advanced a grade to the top, they would some of them drop out, so that as you got up toward the top you would have only three or four pupils in a grade.

Dr. CROUTER. If I had no other pupils fitted for the grade I would certainly do so. Slow pupils should be carefully graded. Pupils of higher mentality should be equally well graded also. If I were to make any difference in the size of the classes it would be among the pupils of the lower grades. First I would fix good grading as the basis of the size of the classes. Then the matter of attention on the part of the pupils should be regarded also as a determining factor. A teacher who will hold the attention of his class may teach 12 pupils as well as 8, if well graded. So as a general rule I would make grading the basis, absolutely, of the size of the class.

Time for conference having elapsed it was declared closed.

Dr. DOBYNS. I want to say that we have with us a modest negro member of the convention, the head of a school in Georgia. I want to say to that member that he has the privilege of asking questions and taking part in these discussions.

Mr. GORDON. I thank you for that privilege.

#### CONFERENCE ON HOW TO MAKE THE SCHOOL HOMELIKE

Directed by Mr. GUILFORD D. EURITT, Virginia.

1. What about the house mother?
2. What about the importance of regular and frequent correspondence between the home people and the children at school as a means of cultivating in the children family affection and love of home?
3. To what extent should social intercourse be allowed among the boys and girls at school?
4. Should children of the primary grades who are too young to take up shopwork be given any employment outside of regular school hours?
5. Should teachers be required to board and lodge in the school?
6. Should teachers be required to take their meals with the pupils?
7. What about the necessity of teachers making themselves accessible to the pupils at all times?
8. What about outdoor pleasures?
9. What about entertainments?
10. What about holidays?



## HOW TO MAKE THE SCHOOL HOMELIKE.

## "1. The house mother."

The mother makes the home. She is the center of the family circle, the most important member of the household. It is the mother to whom the children go with all their plans, their requests, and their little troubles. She must be ready at any time to sew on a button, bind up a stubbed toe, or cure with a kiss a scratched finger.

The majority of our pupils come to us at a tender age when they most need a mother's care, and the nearest substitute for the mother is another good woman. There should be in every school a house mother, and she should not be encumbered with other duties, but should be expected to devote her entire time to the general oversight of the children, to give such advice as a mother gives, and to look after their needs, their comforts, and their pleasures. She may have as many assistants as the population of the school may require, but she herself should be accessible to every child in the school at any time, and her room should be as free to the children as the mother's room at home. A college education and social accomplishments are not so necessary for this position as a kind heart, motherly sympathy, and patience without limit. The house mother can do much to make the school homelike.

"2. The importance of regular and frequent correspondence between the home people and the children at school as a means of cultivating in the children family affection and love of home."

A child can not be happy at school when it is neglected by its home people. As long as it knows that all is well at home and that it is affectionately remembered in the family circle peace of mind helps to make the school days happy days, and the child can pursue its studies heartily and intelligently, but when weeks and months go by without bringing a message from parents or brothers and sisters the child feels the neglect most keenly, and all sorts of dire imaginings make its life unhappy. This neglect is due more frequently to mere aversion to letter writing on the part of parents, but how is the child to know the difference between real and apparent lack of interest, and, as far as value goes, what in reality is the difference?

Parental neglect, continued during the formative period of the child's life, has a very decided tendency to dull filial affection, and in time the school may become a more pleasant place than the home. While we should endeavor to make the school as attractive and homelike as possible, we should guard against weaning the children away from their own homes and their home people. We do not want to educate and elevate these children above their natural environment, but to make them the intellectual equals of those among whom they will have to spend their lives. At the end of their school days the great majority of them must go back whence they came, and it is essential both to their happiness at school and to their future happiness that they should be kept in close touch with their people at home. I believe it should be made one of the stipulations of their admission into the school that children shall receive letters from home at reasonable intervals.

"3. To what extent should social intercourse be allowed among the boys and girls at school?"

In schools such as ours which are open to both sexes it would seem unnatural not to give the boys and girls reasonable social privileges. Children of all ages in every community are allowed to have their little parties, and games, and dances, and during the 10 or 12 years our children have their home in the school and are growing to maturity they should be allowed such social pleasures as other young people enjoy. It is the only opportunity many of them ever have of mingling freely with those of their own class who are naturally their most congenial associates. Social meetings among the pupils not only add greatly to the pleasures of school life, but they have a refining influence upon both sexes. You can easily tell a young man who has had sisters for companions. He is distinguished by a courtliness of manner and purity of conversation which are often sadly wanting in one who has not been accustomed to woman's society. The rougher edges of his nature are smoothed down and the better qualities refined. And if sisters have so much to do with making gentlemen of their brothers, they, in turn, are indebted to their brothers for the ease and grace with which they carry themselves in company and their modest self-possession which is one of the feminine attractions.

Our boys and girls are deprived in great measure of home influences and the social pleasures of the home circle. If they are to know anything about the



polite usages of society, such accomplishments must be acquired while they are learning the more practical lessons of life in the schools provided for them.

I would allow our boys and girls to have sociables at least once a month, and while I would not open the door and invite Cupid in, I would not stop up the keyhole to keep him out. And when I saw one of the older couples seated in a secluded corner I would look in another direction. These pupils of ours expect to marry sooner or later, and most of them do marry. Isn't it better to give them some opportunity of making suitable choice while they are associated together in school than to let them take the greater risk of making mesalliances later on?

I believe that it is our duty to put into the lives of our pupils all the rational pleasures their schooldays will hold, and where there is no reasonable ground for objection we should not discourage any plans of theirs which may involve their future welfare and happiness.

"4. Should children of the primary grades who are too young to take up shop work be given any employment outside of school hours?"

Children should have plenty of time for play, but we can hardly begin too early to give them lessons in industry. I do not know a better way of employing the little fellows than having them spend an hour or so in the afternoons cleaning up the grounds. We have tried the plan at our own school and can recommend it. Soon after dinner every school day the little wagon is drawn out, the regular team for the afternoon hitches itself up, and the boy whose turn it is to act as driver jumps into the wagon and grasps the reins. The whole force of 15 or 20 then starts out under an older boy, who acts as boss. About the only thing that suggests real work is the little overalls they wear. It is really more of a frolic than a task, but they go the rounds every fair day, picking up scraps of paper and other unsightly objects, which they haul away to the dumping ground. Misunderstandings among them sometimes occur, and then follows the most interesting performance of the afternoon. For instance, if the driver uses the whip too vigorously a "horse" is likely to jump out of harness and offer fight. But these little fistcuffs never end seriously, and are really only a part of every healthy boy's education.

Occasionally, too, the loag stretches of cement pavement need sweeping, and then the broom brigade is called out. The captain marshals his men in rows, each one carrying his broom at "right shoulder," and the column marches off in soldierly fashion until it is brought to a halt in the front yard. Then the company is divided into squads and these file off to the respective sections of pavement assigned them.

This method of employing the little boys, which is more than half play, gives them healthful exercise in the open air, teaches them lessons of neatness and orderliness, and serves to keep the grounds in slightly condition.

"5. Should teachers be required to board and lodge in the school?"

It would hardly be practicable for the whole corps of teachers to board and lodge in the school, but I think it is desirable and almost necessary for a majority of them to do so. I would urge this arrangement, first, because it brings the teachers into closer contact with their pupils and gives them better opportunity to direct their studies. Indirectly, the conscientious teacher does a great deal of valuable work outside of the schoolroom, and the more accessible his pupils are to him the more he can accomplish. Then, too, living under the same roof with his pupils he finds opportunity to teach very necessary lessons that are not laid down in the textbooks. He can teach by example, as well as by precept, and inculcate the little courtesies and kindnesses that do so much to sweeten life and beautify character.

In the second place, resident teachers can give invaluable aid in the maintenance of discipline. However alert the supervisors may be, the boy who is inclined to go wrong can easily elude their vigilance, but he will hesitate the longer when he knows there are other eyes that may detect him.

Another reason why I would have teachers live in the school is that it brings them into closer social relationship and gives them more frequent opportunity to confer together and to correlate and harmonize their work. It tends to unify the corps and to promote uniform progress.

"6. Should teachers be required to take their meals with the pupils?"

I do not think it necessary or advisable that teachers should take their meals with the pupils. Too intimate association might breed a familiarity subversive of respect and discipline. If teachers are to be required to eat with the pupils, why not go a step further and require them to sleep in the same dormitories with the pupils? Official dignity suggests that a line be drawn somewhere, and I think it should pass outside the dining-room door.

What I consider a satisfactory plan, and all that is necessary, is to have one of the older pupils preside at each table and to have teachers or officers present to see that the pupils are properly served and that order is observed.

All things being equal, most teachers would prefer to live outside of the school, where they could have equal comforts and more of leisure and quiet, and when they are required to live in the school the place should be made homelike to them as well as to the pupils. When teachers can meet together around their own table they enjoy the feast of reason or the ripple of idle talk. It is an hour of pleasant social converse when the worries of the day are forgotten and the mind is refreshed as well as the body.

A prudent mother gives her growing child simple substantial food, and the appetite of a half-grown boy or girl accepts as grist everything that comes to the mill. On the other hand, older people who no longer retain the health and strength of youth, must often have a greater variety of food to tempt the appetite. It would seem but reasonable, therefore, that the fare served to the teachers should be somewhat different from that provided for the pupils.

"7. The necessity of teachers making themselves accessible to their pupils at all times."

The teacher who really has the welfare of his pupils at heart will manage to find a great many opportunities outside of the schoolroom of teaching useful lessons. He should mingle with his pupils during recreation hours, engage them in conversation on current events and the topics of the day, and be always ready to give information. Children appreciate attention. A pleasant smile in passing by and a cheery sign of greeting are very little things to give, but they go far toward winning a boy's good will and confidence.

The deaf child's term at school is all too short for the work to be accomplished, and every available hour should be made to count for something. The active, resourceful teacher can even direct play into educational channels without detracting from the pleasure of the games, and even unconsciously to the children. The pupils should know their teacher not merely as the man or woman who presides in the schoolroom and hears their lessons, but as a friend and ever-ready helper to whom they can freely go for assistance, advice, or sympathy.

#### "8. Entertainments."

The tired business man at the close of the day finds relaxation in attending a play at the theater. The great pleasure resorts, convenient to every large city, are places of recreation for the toiling masses, who, for the sake of body and mind, must get away now and then from the grinding drudgery of work.

The pupils in our schools are hard workers, carrying out day after day a schedule which is regulated by the hands of the clock and the tap of the bell. To keep up interest, and for the sake of mental and physical relaxation, there must be breaks in the monotony of school life. When the city boy is released from school he scampers away to some back lot, meets his chums, and for the rest of the day books and slates are forgotten in the excitement of a baseball game. The country lad, when he returns from school, finds many things at home to divert his mind from printed pages. In our schools, which are the temporary homes of our pupils, we must provide amusements for them. I believe in athletics, and I think that every school should have its baseball and football teams thoroughly equipped. Competitive games with outside teams should be encouraged, and to heighten the interest in the sport the main event of every season should, if possible, be a match game between school teams of neighboring States.

In our school an amusement fund is maintained, which is used for the entertainment of the pupils in various ways. Stereopticon exhibitions are given every few weeks with change of views at every performance. These not only afford a great deal of pleasure, but are highly educational in character. Occasionally professional entertainers are employed for an evening, and now and then the whole school is sent to attend some suitable performance at the opera house.

Birthday parties have become very fashionable among those of our pupils who can afford the moderate expense of such entertainments. The ladies of the house lend their aid in making the necessary preparations, and everything is arranged as tastefully as if the affair were to be a social event of some importance. One of the large schoolrooms is decorated according to a certain color scheme, and this arrangement is carried out also in the refreshment room where the menu is daintily served.

On such occasions I have seen the little hostess do the honors of the evening with a grace and dignity befitting the drawing room, while the guests conducted themselves with the utmost propriety and ease of manner. These little parties are not only very enjoyable, but they afford opportunity to teach very necessary lessons in social etiquette.

Mr. MONTAGUE. Don't you think we should educate the deaf child to be an uplifting member of his own household?

Mr. EURITT. In many cases I believe it. I believe the educated boy or girl will have an influence on the people at home to bring them up to his or her standard.

Dr. TATE. The modest writer of this paper was so much afraid that he would not exhaust the subject in hand that he requested some of us to say a few words. So it devolves upon me to give an expression.

I consider it one of the most delicate and important of all the subjects superintendents and teachers have to consider in conducting an institution. The social life is the most complicated of all problems, involving the development of children at a time when their lives are to express what they are to do in their whole existence. Unless proper attention is paid to the social amenities in the schools, we may expect to fail in what I call one of the vital points of our work, the development of character. One point I would offer in the way of a suggestion. It seems that the West Virginia school has had a lot of trouble in keeping the small children occupied. Now, with the children of that age in the Minnesota school we occupy them a part of every day in a very useful way. For instance, the little boys are kept something like an hour a day in the sewing room, and it is surprising how they develop in that line, learning to darn and patch. And when they go home, I can tell you, they teach their mothers and sisters to darn and patch. We have had statements to that effect, and how gratified the mothers and sisters were at learning of our plan. That occupies them not long, but a little while each day, and easily leaves them plenty of time to form the broom brigade and the wagon brigade and clean up the yard. Now, when they graduate in this plain, simple work, they are transferred to the sloyd department, and there they are occupied before they are ready to take up a regular trade. I suggest this as a way of keeping occupied those little children at a time when they are too small for the more difficult things.

There is one other question that confronts all of us. I believe a revolution is coming more or less gradually, and that the time will come when all our institutions gotten up on such a grandiloquent plan, large dormitories, large dining rooms, and large everything, will be changed. I believe we are going to come to the house mother idea before we ever reach any satisfactory solution of this social problem.

Mr. JENKINS. I think Mr. Euritt has done well to make the "mother" the one foundation. Many make the household, but one makes the home. I think what we want is the "eternal feminine."

Mrs. BALIS. I have been in schools where in the dining room the boys are on one side and the girls on the other. In other schools I have visited there were family groups. I have noticed that where there are family groups the children are better mannered, more considerate. Boys when they are together and not watched just grab

everything in sight. If there is a girl around, they are more careful. The girls who are in the presence of boys seem to think to themselves, "I will try to be more polite, for they are watching me." I would like to see all our pupils taught to dance. You know yourselves how they drag their feet. I have noticed that those who have been taught to dance are much more graceful in carriage. In our school we teach the children to always bow to people, and the boys to take off their hats. I do think that where the boys and girls are allowed to mingle they will not only be more polite in school, but away from school they are more apt to remember that they are ladies and gentlemen.

Mr. McFARLANE. I believe the children in our schools are too young to be taught to dance. Let them wait until they go to college. I think they become too familiar.

No further remarks being offered the discussion was declared closed.

#### CONFERENCE ON WHAT SHALL BE DONE WITH THE FEEBLE-MINDED DEAF?

Directed by Miss EDITH FITZGERALD, Wisconsin.

1. What do we mean by backward and feeble-minded children and wherein do they differ from those we call normal?
2. Should backward and feeble-minded children be in school with normal-deaf children?
3. What part does theory play in the instruction of feeble-minded and backward children?
4. What should be the number to a class?
5. Should they be in school five hours and what do you consider the best arrangements as to time?
6. (a) Should there be any laxity in discipline as compared with normal-minded deaf? (b) When such children seem incorrigible, is the incorrigibility due to their backwardness or vice versa.
7. Can such children be made to do ordinary school work? If so, how soon can special instruction be dispensed with?
8. In the beginning, how much attention should the teacher pay to heredity and to the physical condition of the child?
9. Should signs be used with them in the school room and to what extent?
10. How soon should they begin to spell and to read spelling?
11. Has it been, in your experience, a difficult matter to encourage spelling?
12. What should be the special aim in language work?
13. Are manual training and drawing of much importance with such children, and are they as capable along these lines as are normal children?
14. Do you think it ever the case that backward and feeble-minded children can eventually be taught speech and lip reading?
15. How far can these children profitably proceed in the course?

Question 1. What do we mean by backward or feeble-minded children and wherein do they differ from those we call normal?

Very often the trouble may be found to be mostly or entirely physical, and the child, after the needed attention is given, no longer appears backward.

A child may be merely unable to "catch hold" at first, so as to do ordinary first-grade work in a year's time. A second year with special help from the teacher will be all he needs to place him with the average. Such a child is not to be classified with the backward or feeble-minded.

As to others: A really well-balanced mind seems the exception. It is where this unbalanced condition is found to a very great degree

that children appear backward or feeble-minded. Admitting that none of the faculties is absolutely wanting, but only dormant or undeveloped, it is plain that to restore the equilibrium the sleeping faculties must be awakened and developed.

But decided unbalanced mentality may manifest itself in so many ways that there can be no hard-and-fast rule for a teacher's guidance, either in picking out such mentalities or in dealing with them. These children, the ones commonly called backward or feeble-minded, differ, for a time, from those we call normal and must be placed at first in special classes where they can have individual attention. As to what the attention shall be, hardly two children have the same needs. That is where the work of the special teacher comes in. She must find a method for each child.

Question 2. Should backward and feeble-minded children be in school with normal-deaf children?

Yes. The children whom our schools will consider taking are never in such condition that their presence can prove injurious to the others. I have noticed that these so-called backward and feeble-minded children are sometimes surprisingly quick at imitating other people. Association with normal children is of the greatest benefit to them.

Then, too, even though the schoolroom work is carried on in special classes, they are in the manual training and domestic-science work thrown with other children and often, as a result, ambition is aroused to do better work and more of it—more as other children are doing.

Question 3 (a) What part does theory play in the instruction of feeble-minded and backward children? (b) How does teaching feeble-minded children differ from teaching normal children?

Just so much in general as it applies to the instruction of normal-minded children, as, for example, working from the known to the unknown.

(1) It is harder to find the known from which to proceed. (2) The method of approach to the thought must be different. Hardly two children can be approached in the same way. (3) The need of illustration and repetition is greater. (4) The work is almost wholly individual.

Mr. RAY. I want to ask if the discussion will be covering the idiot?

Dr. DOBYNS. They have a class here of very feeble-minded children.

Mr. RAY. Not simply backward children?

Dr. DOBYNS. No.

Miss FITZGERALD.

Question 4. What should be the number to a class?

Since no two groups of equal number are ever of the same capacity, in making up a class, the condition of the children must be the guide. Six is the largest number to which, under favorable circumstances, a teacher can possibly do justice. In the majority of cases there should be but four or five.

Question 5. Should they be in school 5 hours, and what do you consider the best arrangement of time?

No young, backward child should be in school 5 hours. Four hours are as many as any such child can profitably spend there, and  $3\frac{1}{2}$  hours would be better for a great many.



As to the best arrangement of time, the same principle would apply to all classes, and that is to have the children in groups, no child spending over  $3\frac{1}{2}$  or 4 hours in school. This should be planned so that the teacher has all of the children together not more than 45 minutes or 1 hour during the day.

The point in thought here is that these children are seldom capable of seat or busy work without supervision or guidance. The ideal situation would be to have two teachers. But where one must do the work, she can do it better if, while she is working with each child, she has not the strain of keeping all the others busy—or merely occupied, as the case may sometimes be.

The hour she has the whole class can generally be most profitably spent in busy work or play—for these children must be taught to play. A plan I have wanted to carry out is to spend this hour, perhaps two days out of the five, with one of the younger class of normal children. There are a great many games in which a teacher with four or five children is at a disadvantage. So, to allow such a class to mingle, say 2 hours a week, with a class of normal children, would, under the guidance of two teachers, whether in busy work or in play, be of inestimable value to the slower ones, and need not, if tact is used, be other than a help to the brighter.

Question 6 (a) Should there be any laxity in discipline, as compared with normal-minded children? (b) When such children are incorrigible, is the incorrigibility due to backwardness, or vice versa?

There should be no laxity in discipline. On the other hand, the discipline should be of the strictest nature, and yet of the very kindest. These children are at first deficient in will; so the will of the teacher must be a substitute for that of the child in order that he display correct conduct.

Children, when incorrigible, are so because we can not reason with them. Consequently they are incorrigible because they are backward.

Question 7. Can such children be made to do ordinary school work? If so, how soon, generally, can special instruction be dispensed with?

There should be no reason why every child, even of the so-called feeble-minded class, can not, if taken individually, when young, be made to do ordinary school work.

As to when special instruction can generally be dispensed with: The battle should be practically won when the child has completed first-grade work. It may have taken him 5 years to do it, but it is during this time that the teacher's work comes in to restore the equilibrium. The child should then be at the point where he can go through the second grade in 2 years or less; after which, with possibly occasional help over difficult places, he should be able to go on in a class with normal children.

Question 8. How much attention should the teacher pay to heredity and to the physical condition of the child?

The less weight a teacher gives to heredity the better. Attention to its claims may even sidetrack her to such an extent that a great deal of valuable time is lost in the attempt to approach the thought of a child. In short, no attention whatever should be paid to heredity.

As to the physical condition, every attention should be given. Very often much of the trouble with so-called backward and feeble-minded children is merely physical.

Question 9. Should signs be used with them in the schoolroom, and to what extent?

Communication by means of manual spelling should from the beginning be the aim, and as soon as the child can form the letters on his fingers he should be made to understand that he is expected to spell.

But before this point is reached there must be a general waking up, and in this waking-up process the sign language is invaluable and indispensable. In no other way can the child possibly express his thoughts, and the teacher must stoop to his plane and give him her thoughts in the same way.

Question 10. How soon should they begin to spell and read spelling?

Just as soon as written words are given. A word should not be considered the child's own until he can both write and spell it and is able to understand it when spelled by another. Spelling should, all the way through, go hand in hand with writing.

Question 11. Has it been in your experience a difficult matter to encourage spelling?

No; children delight in spelling and very soon take things into their own hands. I have seen children who were just beginning real school work, whose vocabulary did not exceed 20 words, unexpectedly show their desire to spell by spelling the one word they knew in connection with something they were trying to tell in signs.

I find that if the idea is given at first, that spelling rather than signs is the aim, the children will, in a very short time, begin to ask for the spelled "names" of things and feel that spelling is something of an accomplishment.

Question 12. What should be the special aim in language work?

The special aim should be to find out what the children are thinking and what they may wish to say and have each one put his thoughts and not ours to language.

Whatever the subject may be, whether of something that happened, about a walk taken, or about a picture, the teacher must strive to get the idea as the child has it, to see things as he sees them. Then the language will be that of the child—as he sees and understands things—and not as they appear to the teacher.

In brief, the aim should be to have the children talk about the commonplace things in their lives and to be able to understand what others may ask or say along this line with spelling as the means of communication.

Question 13. Are manual training and drawing of much importance to such children and are they as capable along these lines as normal children?

This is a hard question for me to answer. It is the custom here for second-grade children to start at manual-training work. I seldom have more than two children in the second grade, consequently have not had opportunity for observation along this line. But I know it is a help when the children do take it up, especially as prompters of language. The youngest children are given drawing lessons, and I have found it to be of the greatest help.

Question 14. Do you think it ever the case that such children can eventually be taught speech and lip reading?

Yes; I have always felt that after general "waking up" has taken place a number could and should be placed in oral classes.

Question 15. How far can these children profitably proceed in the course?

Just so far as ordinary deaf children proceed. The average among the deaf—the majority—do not go to college; so it will be with the children in question. I have in thought a boy who was at one time in the backward stage and who did not emerge from that state very easily. He passed to seventh grade last month, ranking second in a class of 10. I think he will be able to go to college, while a great many others may finish the intermediate course with only a fair record.

A great deal depends here upon the help and encouragement given these children during the years after they have left the special classes to which they were at first necessarily assigned.

MR. LAURENS WALKER. Is there not in Wisconsin a school for the feeble-minded and is not that the place for these children, even if deaf?

MISS FITZGERALD. There is a school.

MR. LAURENS WALKER. Isn't that the place for these children?

MISS FITZGERALD. It was thought so in the past, but just lately Supt. E. W. Walker of this school has had them come here, and I think this is the place for them, because they are not prepared to teach deaf children in the school for the feeble-minded.

MR. LAURENS WALKER. I want to differ with Miss Fitzgerald. I do not think our schools for the deaf are the proper place at all for such children. I think it is a great injury to normal deaf children.

DR. DOBYNS. If you had no school for the feeble-minded, would it not be necessary?

DR. TATE. Miss Fitzgerald says they are not prepared to teach feeble-minded deaf at the State School for the Feeble-Minded. I would ask why not? I am opposed to having feeble-minded children mixed with the deaf.

MR. RAY. We want to know what the feeble-minded children are. Are they the slobbering, rickety kind, or are they just slow, backward children?

MISS FITZGERALD. We never admit boys or girls who are not capable of walking or who can not take care of themselves somewhat. We have had children here who had to have a great deal of special help in connection with putting on clothing, children whom, ordinarily, schools admit. We are not in the habit of admitting boys and girls not able to walk, who drool, or can not take care of themselves to a certain extent, although many of them are far below average in mind. This year we had one child who had been in the school for the feeble-minded for three years and was brought here in February. They seemed to think at the feeble-minded school that they couldn't do much with her. A member of the board went to Chippewa Falls to see the child, and called Mr. Walker's attention to it and asked him to bring her here in February, and she is learning now in this school.

MR. JENKINS. I received early in May a letter from a former pupil of mine who is now on a farm. The letter discussed the best method of raising corn—a new method largely used in the South at present. That boy was admitted to our institution with much hesitation. He was thought to be feeble-minded. The first year he made no progress at all that we could see. The second year there was much improvement. He went through the school, and that letter

he wrote me this spring was in good English and was an intelligent discussion of the matter in which he was interested.

Mr. JOHNSON, of Indiana. We have in Indiana a school for feeble-minded youth, and the attorney general of the State some years ago gave out an opinion that in case a feeble-minded deaf boy or girl who can not be received at the school for the deaf is sent there it is their duty to provide a teacher. There are various grades of feeble-minded children. Now, the rickety, drooling, slobbering kind, with no control of mind or body, all clearly belong in the school for the feeble-minded. And there are cases, too, where, while the child is able to a certain extent to take care of himself, he is very far indeed below average in mentality. These also belong to the same school. But it sometimes happens that along the "border line," the line of demarcation between the normal and subnormal, there are presented cases among both the deaf and the hearing, flippantly and unjustly referred to as feeble-minded, where the child, with proper treatment, will improve to such an extent as to be able to go in with normal children; and by "normal children" I mean those of average mentality and self-control, or very near thereto. It is a difficult proposition in many of these border-line cases for a deaf superintendent or a feeble-minded superintendent [laughter] to decide which is which. There are a great many hearing children who apparently are not feeble-minded, yet do not talk. They belong to these border-line cases. And I do believe that in many of these cases, in the name of humanity, we should give to them the benefit of the doubt instead of condemning them to the feeble-minded schools, where in nine cases out of ten there are no facilities and small chance for mental improvement. I think, out of pure humanity, we ought to take such children into our schools in special classes and under special teachers. I have in mind a boy that came into my school years ago. We had him for a year and a half or two years, and at the end of that time I felt myself justified in telling the mother what I have never before told a mother—and I hope I never will again—that her boy was feeble-minded and didn't belong with us. There was a dreadful scene. She begged that he be allowed to remain, and the upshot of it was I concluded to keep the boy for a while longer. That boy, after finally catching hold of the work, got along very well in his grades, went along and was graduated, and is doing well to-day. I do not want to—and never shall again—assume the responsibility in one of these border-line cases, of saying a child is feeble-minded—certainly not to his mother.

I am reminded of a story Dr. Philip G. Gillett told me years ago of a boy left with him in his school. And he thought and insisted after a trial that the boy was feeble-minded, every indication being that way, and urged the father to remove him. The boy's mother was dead. The father had no established home and begged that his boy be kept until he could establish one. Well, that boy was kept and was graduated the valedictorian of his class.

I would not take into a school either hearing-mutes or deaf-mutes unless they were able to take care of themselves. Any child 6 years of age can be taught to do that.

Dr. DOBYNS. I would like to say that I have visited Miss Fitzgerald's class and spent hours there last February, and, in addition to that, I have been, I think, in almost every school for the deaf in the United States, and I want to say I found in every school in this



country children as feeble-minded as those Miss Fitzgerald has in her class.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Are they backward children or feeble-minded children? I should like something definite in answer to that. Mr. Johnson, here, tells us that he had a child who became a light in the Indiana institution.

Mr. JOHNSON. Not a "light," but an average pupil. I maintain that you can not always tell the real condition, and that the child should be given the benefit of the doubt, especially if of good habits and cleanly.

A MEMBER. I would like to say that I was surprised on visiting the institution for the feeble-minded in this State to learn that it is not a school, but a home. I also learned that comparatively few are educated and returned to the society from which they came. They go there, as a rule, to spend their lives.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. Mr. Milligan has charge of both the school for the deaf and the institution for the feeble-minded in his State. I should like to hear from him.

Dr. DOBYNS. I am so glad we have one feeble-minded superintendent with us. [Laughter.]

Mr. MILLIGAN. I have been a feeble-minded superintendent for a number of years. [Laughter and applause.] It is very easy to make mistakes in classifying children. I have transferred children from the deaf department to the feeble-minded department and had to transfer them back again. I very frequently find that a deaf pupil who will not progress under one teacher will do excellent work under another. I believe the line between a backward and a feeble-minded child should be drawn in this way: If a pupil is 6 years old, can dress himself, has a good moral character, and is cleanly in his personal habits, it makes no difference whatever evidences of feeble-mindedness he shows, he should be kept in the deaf department. The association of dull and backward deaf children with pupils of brighter minds will not injure the bright children and will be of great benefit to the backward class. When you transfer a child to the feeble-minded department you place a blot on his record as bad as sending a man to the penitentiary. Therefore, I believe there should be a special class in every school that is large enough for the backward, doubtful, or border-line cases, and it should be a last resort for any superintendent to send a deaf child to a feeble-minded school.

Miss FITZGERALD. I heartily agree with what Mr. Milligan has said.

Mr. GOODWIN. Do not superintendents make such requirements of any child before admission?

Miss FITZGERALD. I would like to say that the majority of boys and girls I have had were first taught in other classes and did not get on with success. It is hard to draw the line. The feeble-minded child does after a while reach the backward stage, then progresses to the normal if properly taught.

Mr. JOHNSON, of Indiana. As to a hearing mute, that condition is of itself an indication of degeneracy as a general proposition, but, as in all other cases, there are exceptions. I have had in my school on two or three different occasions children who seemed to hear very well indeed, yet could not articulate. They were of average mentality, although I must confess that Dr. Murdock, a high authority upon the feeble-minded, says he never saw a hearing mute with average



mentality, and he thinks they should all be in the feeble-minded schools; but I disagree with both him and Mr. Wade, because I know from experience from those I have had there are exceptions to that very broad assertion. I feel that with the very great majority of these hearing mutes that come to us seeking admission there is a degenerate mind back of their afflictions, and that they belong in the feeble-minded school; but there are exceptions, and they are the cases to which I am referring. I know from experience with some we have had that some of them can do well with us, and, unless of very pronounced type of feeble-mindedness, we should not decide against them until we have given them a trial. We should not send them to the other place until we are sure of their feeble-mindedness. Once there, they are surely stigmatized.

Miss WETTSTEIN. I should like to call attention to what is known as the psychologically deaf child. We have had a little girl in school three years, and we are sending her back to the hearing school. You couldn't say she had speech at all when she came. She couldn't articulate clearly. She was termed psychologically deaf. Another was a case of aphasia that otherwise would have gone to the feeble-minded school. I think it is our duty to subject abnormal children to a diagnosis; then when we find them too backward to learn speech they should be placed in separate institutions, where they are fed according to their physical needs and ailments, given electric treatment and massage. This is done in Europe. Wouldn't it be wise to introduce such a practice into this country? If there are backward children, they should be kept in separate institutions, receive diagnosis and special medical treatment. These children are subnormal and should be treated as subnormal children in a hearing institution. We ought to give everybody a chance, and only after they are thoroughly diagnosed by a physician and it is absolutely decided that they are a menace to the community should they be sent to the schools for the feeble-minded. There are cases of aphasia and aphonia which might be cured in schools for the deaf by the same treatment that would be giving a hearing child similarly afflicted. Whether they are psychologically or anatomically deaf, take them into the schools until they are properly diagnosed.

In Europe they classify as follows: Classes A, B, C, and D. Dr. Barnes, in London, has charge of those we would call feeble-minded. The backward ones can go to the other schools. Each child is given an opportunity to learn the kind of trade by which he can best earn his livelihood. They are taught by any method. They give the A, B, and C classes oral instruction. Class D are kept in a separate place, where they teach them signs or a manual alphabet. This class does not associate with the brighter classes. They have a special home where they are given special attention. They are under the care of medical inspectors, and are given sun baths and special gymnastics and have special food, which would be impossible in a large institution. Each case is diagnosed by a neurologist, and each one given the food and treatment he needs.

Mr. GOODWIN. If a child is not deaf, I should think the methods used in teaching the deaf would be more difficult for him to grasp than those used in hearing schools. A defective child has special attention, to be sure, but the methods used in teaching the deaf, instead of helping him, would, it seems, in reality be a handicap to him.

Couldn't he be educated to better advantage with hearing children and not have his time taken up with the detail of learning by the methods of teaching the deaf? I have never yet seen a case of dumbness with anything approaching average mentality.

Mr. JOHNSON, Come up to Indiana, and I will show you some.

Miss WETTSTEIN. I can, too. I have had two or three classed as feeble-minded who, by taking special gymnastics, have come out all right, and I think it would be wise sometimes if hearing teachers employed methods used by the teachers of the deaf in oral schools.

Dr. TATE. This question of the feeble-minded deaf is giving all a lot of trouble. It is a question that concerns the lives of these children. I want to ask Miss Wettstein, or any other teacher who has control of day schools in this State, or in any other State, what percentage of children brought to them are of the hearing mute class?

Miss WETTSTEIN. I have really never figured the percentage. As a rule they are classed as feeble-minded and we give them a fair test in schools for the deaf or schools for backward speech, and after a test of two or three years we take a consensus of opinion of the teachers and medical inspector in determining whether the pupil should go to the feeble-minded school. I have not figured the per cent—perhaps 1.

Dr. TATE. Those of us who have charge of schools for the deaf are worried out of our lives by the recommendations of physicians and the parents of feeble-minded children. The doctors say, "Your child is deaf and dumb, therefore he should go to the school for the deaf." The child is not deaf and dumb; it is dumb. The doctors give us lots of trouble. I wish they had more brains.

Dr. CROUTER. The proper treatment of certain classes of hearing mutes is growing in importance. I think every one of our schools has applications for admission from a very considerable number of hearing children who are dumb or mute, but not deaf. I should like to inquire whether it is felt that in schools for the deaf we have a right to attempt to train that class of children. Our schools are schools for the deaf, not schools for the hearing dumb. Now, while I believe that hearing mutes should be taught and believe and know they may to a limited degree be successfully taught, I feel the work should not be done in schools for the deaf, but in schools maintained for their especial care and training.

Dr. DOBYNS. What is the legal title of your school?

Dr. CROUTER. The Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.

Dr. DOBYNS. I thought so. Isn't that an answer to your argument?

Dr. CROUTER. I have never felt we had a right to take into our school a child not deaf.

Mr. CONNOR, of Georgia. The Georgia law reads this way:

All persons between the ages of 7 and 25 who are too deaf to receive education in the common schools are entitled to admission to the school for the deaf.

I would like to know how many other superintendents have that law?

Miss FITZGERALD. As far as the kind of children I have had, I have had those Mr. Walker has given me; I have not picked them out, but he has, and he has classified them as feeble-minded children.

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Dr. DOBYNS. If there is no further discussion I will declare this conference closed.

The following telegram from Mr. Mathison was read:

Mr. Mathison wishes to be remembered to the members of the convention and regrets exceedingly that he is unable to leave his business long enough to spend a few days with you.

Mr. Ray made a motion that the secretary be instructed to respond to this telegram, and motion being duly seconded and put to vote, was unanimously carried.

#### CONFERENCE ON TEACHERS AS EXAMPLES TO PUPILS.

Directed by Mrs. SYLVIA C. BALIS, Belleville, Canada.

1. What is the most important qualification of a teacher?
2. What particular failing is most deplorable in a teacher?
3. What effect upon the pupils has unevenness of temper in the teacher?
4. Can the teacher be successful professionally and socially at the same time?
5. What part does the personal appearance of the teacher play in the government of children?
6. Which is the most desirable possession, refinement or culture, and why?
7. Are not mannerisms of the teacher apt to be imitated by the pupils? What effect do they have upon the pupils?
8. What does a slovenly appearance on the part of the teacher show?
9. How should a confirmed nagging, fault-finding teacher be dealt with?
10. Which is preferable, a strap or a smile, in managing a class?
11. Do pupils respect most a person with patience or one with pugilistic tendencies?
12. Is it not possible to maintain better discipline by a firm and decisive settlement of difficulties in the schoolroom than by threats to tell the superior officers?
13. Which is the most effective, sarcasm or sympathy?
14. Is not sympathetic interest a greater bond of confidence than compulsion?
15. What effect upon the pupil has suspicion?
16. What effect upon the whole has favoritism?
17. Is it right to publicly discuss pupils, to enlarge upon their lack of ability, and point out physical defects?
18. Is it just as desirable for teachers to apologize to the pupils as vice versa?
19. When loyalty is lacking in teachers, is it reasonable to look for it in pupils?
20. How can teachers be induced to remember they were once young, and make allowances for the lack of responsibility in their pupils?
21. What does criticism of a preceding teacher indicate on the part of the teacher doing the criticising?
22. How can we most fully realize the difficulties in the acquirement of language with which the pupils have to contend?
23. If you were a pupil, what would you most prefer in your teacher?
24. When you were a child, what trait in your teachers most appealed to you?

Mrs. BALIS. I have been asked so many times to act as arbitrator between pupils and teacher that I have this matter at heart. But I understood others were to answer these questions.

Question 1. What is the most important qualification of a teacher?

If we put all the qualifications together, she would be an angel with wings. But I think on the whole, patience, broadmindedness, and an interest in her charges is the most important qualification. This description should apply to the men also.

Question 2. What particular failing is most deplorable in a teacher?

I think lack of interest and indifference.

Question 3. What effect upon the pupils has unevenness of temper in the teacher?

A very bad effect. It makes the child quite indifferent. The child will say: "I have done my best. I will be found fault with, no matter what I do; so what's the use?"

Question 4. Can the teacher be successful professionally and socially at the same time.

Well, that depends. Some teachers can, but to those teachers who generally give the most of their time to the professional, the social side is merely a relaxation. I do not like to see teachers get into a narrow rut. I think they should go out among people and travel. The world is large and there are many people in it. I think it is the duty of the teacher to uphold the social part of life, because the teachers stand as examples to the children. Of course, it can be carried to extremes, and too much time spent in social pleasures to the neglect of other things.

Question 5. What part does the personal appearance of the teacher play in the government of children?

Everything; the better looking the teacher, the better the children will like it. The better dressed, the better the class will be.

Question 6. Which is the more desirable possession, refinement or culture, and why?

Refinement is innate. I have met cultured but vulgar people, some whom I hope never to meet again. Their culture is a mere veneer; the least scratch will disclose the real thing; but refinement is innate in the person like the fragrance in the rose.

Question 7. Are not mannerisms of the teacher apt to be imitated by the pupils? What effect do they have upon the pupils?

They certainly are, and I think they have a bad effect. I have met pupils from certain schools, and I knew at once from their mannerisms who their teachers were. They are so impressionable, so apt to imitate, that we must guard ourselves against acquiring mannerisms.

Question 8. What does a slovenly appearance on the part of the teacher show?

A slovenly mind.

Question 9. How should a confirmed nagging, fault-finding teacher be dealt with?

Were I the superintendent, she would be dealt with at once. Such a person has no business in a school.

Question 10. Which is preferable, a strap or a smile in managing a class?

For myself, I should use the smile. I would let them see I thought what they were doing was ridiculous. I would pass things off in class and talk to them privately, instead of reproving them before the whole class.

Question 11. Do pupils respect most a person with patience, or one with pugilistic tendencies?

I think patience is best, although sometimes the rod is good for them. A bully, like a nagger, has no business in a school.

Question 12. Is it not possible to maintain better discipline by a firm and decisive settlement of difficulties in the schoolroom than by threats to tell their superior officers?

I think so; no child likes to be threatened. I have heard of a school where there is a push bell in each schoolroom to call up the principal, and some of the teachers keep it going most of the time. I only hope he isn't in his office to hear it. I have never yet seen the child that could not be reasoned with. I think something can be done right in the schoolroom.

Question 13. Which is the more effective, sarcasm or sympathy?

I think sympathy is the more effective. I do not believe in sarcasm.

Question 14. Is not sympathetic interest a greater bond of confidence than compulsion?

I think it is. I think a child will do things more readily for one he loves or respects than because ordered to do them.

Question 15. What effect upon the pupil has suspicion?

I think it is bad. The children are so quick of observation that if they once become suspicious it is hard to rid them of being always suspicious. To be placed under suspicion arouses all that is bad in a boy or girl.

Question 16. What effect, upon the whole, has favoritism?

The very worst. It is the one thing I would not permit in my school. The tendency is to select the very bright pupil, the rich pupil, the nice pupil. I have seen little children made very unhappy by this partiality. A child will say, "That one can go to church, can go down town; that one can have everything; we can't." We should treat them alike. They have all been brought to us on equal terms, and to select one for favors is wicked. It is a great injustice to the child. Some teachers, of course, are not guilty of it, but others are. It also has such a bad effect upon the child in after life. They may enjoy this favoritism while they are in school, may say "I am the teacher's pet; I can do as I want; you can't." But as they grow older they can not do as they wish. As their school life goes on their schoolmates will make life miserable for such pupils. It is very wrong. I beg of you, do not do it.

Question 17. Is it right to publicly discuss pupils, to enlarge upon their lack of ability, and point out physical defects?

No; it is not. How would you like to have some one go up to you and say, "His ears are of different shape," or "That one is feeble-minded;" "That one over there has a deaf and dumb mother;" "That one can hear;" "That one is so awfully stupid." How would you like it? It is bad enough to be deaf without having anything like that to bear. If we are going to make our children like normal children, we have got to be blind to some of their defects. There are always other children who will remind them of their physical defects; it is not our place to do it.

Question 18. Is it just as desirable for teachers to apologize to the pupils as vice versa?

I think it is. I would not hesitate to go to any pupil in the school, if I had made a mistake, and make an apology and acknowledge my



mistake. There is everything in being sympathetic and setting a good example. You can't expect respect from your pupils unless you show respect for them and their rights.

Question 19. When loyalty is lacking in teachers is it reasonable to look for it in pupils?

No, it is not; if you are not loyal, you can not look for loyalty in the child, and you have no right to demand it.

Question 20. How can teachers be induced to remember they were once young, and make allowances for the lack of responsibility in their pupils?

I don't know. Do you? I wish somebody would answer. It seems impossible to make some teachers remember it. Some of them seem never to have had any childhood.

Question 21. What does criticism of a preceding teacher indicate on the part of the teacher doing the criticizing?

Narrow-mindedness. Admission of a desire to lay the blame for their own failures on the preceding teacher. It is too contemptible to be spoken of.

Question 22. How can we most fully realize the difficulties in the acquirement of language with which the pupils have to contend?

I know of nothing better than to study a foreign language. An attempt to learn Chinese would probably make us realize it more quickly than anything else, for our language is just as unintelligible to them as the Chinese characters would be to us. And if we had a good teacher we would probably find we made more mistakes than the children do.

Question 23. If you were a pupil what would you most prefer in your teacher?

I would prefer justice.

Question 24. When you were a child what trait in your teachers most appealed to you?

One of my best-loved teachers was Dr. Harvey Milligan, once superintendent of this institution. He was one of the finest teachers I ever had. I have never had a woman teacher in a literary department; they have always been men. What impressed me most about Dr. Milligan was not his wisdom but his simplicity, his interestedness, his love for his pupils, and also his neatness; I never saw a neater man. He always looked as though he had just come out of a band-box. I think his simplicity, his interestedness, and his real love for the children were the chief things about him that impressed me.

No questions being asked the conference was declared closed.

Secretary Hall moved that, as the hour was late, the business meeting be postponed until 2.30 p. m., instead of being held at 12, as scheduled by program, which motion received second and was unanimously carried.

The following papers were read by Dr. E. A. Fay: "Preparation for Gallaudet College."

- (a) In Latin, by Prof. A. B. Fay.
- (b) In English, by Dr. J. B. Hotchkiss.
- (c) In Algebra, by Dr. A. G. Draper.

## PREPARATION FOR GALLAUDET COLLEGE

(A) IN LATIN, PROF. A. B. FAY.

Mr. President, ladies, and gentlemen: In response to your committee's request for suggestions about the preparation in Latin of candidates for Gallaudet College, I offer the following:

First, there is no better textbook for beginners than Collar & Daniell's "First-year Latin." This book is incomparably the best one for Gallaudet candidates to use, because our admission examinations are based upon it as regards vocabulary, and as affording the amount of preparation necessary for admission to our introductory class.

Second, pupils should be required to memorize perfectly the paradigms, model sentences, vocabularies, and rules. The deaf, as a rule, seem to be able to memorize forms easily, probably because they are in the habit of learning in that way. But they should be taught to use their reasoning powers to help their memories. For instance, it will be much easier for them to memorize the paradigms of the various declensions if they understand the general rules which apply to all declensions, and it will be much easier for them to memorize the paradigms of the verbs if they understand the principles upon which the Latin verb system is built.

Third, the teacher should be on his guard against the tendency of stupid or lazy pupils to borrow and transcribe the written exercises of those who are brighter or more diligent. In schools where the same textbook is used year after year there is danger that the exercises corrected by the teacher may be handed down from class to class. The first time the teacher detects copied exercises, a warning talk should be given to the class, warning lender as well as borrower. The teacher should explain the dishonesty and also the folly of copying another's work. It is dishonest because it is an attempt to get credit for work that is not one's own; it is foolish because it wastes the pupil's time in doing something from which he derives little or no benefit. The exercises are intended to test the pupil's memory of forms, his understanding of rules, and his power of grasping ideas. There is little profit in committing exercises to memory merely for one day's recitation, even when the original is perfect; and it often happens that the original contains errors; these also the lazy or stupid pupil copies and commits to memory. If pupils continue this dishonest and foolish practice after being warned, they should be severely disciplined.

Fourth, the teacher should question the pupils closely about the syntax of the sentences in the exercises. This will enable the teacher to judge whether the exercises have been honestly written, and it will also give the practice needed for answering questions about syntax in examinations.

Fifth, the teacher should give the class original exercises in addition to those in the book. These may be given as class work, either manual or written. As they are done under the teacher's eye, where the pupil has no opportunity of obtaining dishonest help, they serve as a better test of the pupil's progress than exercises written out of class.

Sixth, especial emphasis needs to be laid upon certain rules. The writer has found his pupils usually well grounded in the simple English constructions of subject, direct object, and indirect object. The translation of sentences illustrating these principles is easy for the pupil, because in them the construction of English and of Latin is similar; but when the pupil reaches the rule about the dative of possessor emphasis should be laid upon the fact that a metaphrase is not a translation and that different languages have idioms peculiar to themselves.

Emphasis should be laid on the Latin possessive adjective, on purpose and result clauses, on indirect questions and indirect statements, on participles, and on conditional sentences. The attempt to grasp the purpose and result ideas and the ideas expressed by the various types of conditional sentences affords valuable training in the use of English and in logical thinking. The writer has found that a large per cent of his pupils have come to the study of "First Year Latin" without the ability to express these ideas in English. Many a pupil will write: "If I can hear, I am not in this school."

Seventh and last, teachers should make themselves familiar with the "Teachers' Manual," which is published to accompany "First Year Latin." It is supplied by Ginn & Co. free of charge, and contains many valuable and detailed suggestions which it would be impossible to give in a paper of this kind.

(B) IN ENGLISH, DR. J. B. HOTCHKISS.

The deficiencies in English of candidates for admission to the college usually include an insufficient vocabulary, an inadequate command even of such vocabulary as they possess, and a lack of comprehension of idiomatic and elided colloquial forms. As a consequence, they fail to grasp the meaning and scope of the plainest statements and the simplest questions.

In addition, candidates are often backward in the development of thought power; they do not seem able to concentrate their minds upon a question and think out its meaning, but, running it over, they catch at some familiar word and answer wildly. They are good at memorizing but weak in comprehending the metaphors that vary the meaning of the commonest words.

Any one of these deficiencies is a serious handicap, and, having all, a candidate is pretty sure to fail in college work, no matter what his natural abilities may be.

The only remedy that we can suggest is longer and more thorough preparation. The time given the deaf student to prepare himself for college, when compared with that allotted the hearing youth, is lamentably short and inadequate. Taking into account his handicap, it ought to be longer than that of the hearing boy and more painstaking. Stretch it out in all cases to the limit of a few of our schools, 12 and 13 years, and even then do not send a boy or girl to college who is overyoung or immature. The attainment of this limit is not likely to be immediate, therefore it may be wise to make more time for language work by cutting down the study of the technics of grammar.

We do not think it wise in any case to overburden the young mind with the intricacies of grammar. Fix clearly in the pupil's mind as early as you please the three fundamental relations of syntax—the predicate, the adjective, and the adverbial—but do not waste time insisting that the pupil shall be able to classify properly every part of speech that he meets and give correctly their various inflectional forms. Let him rather learn the latter by observation in his reading. Teach him that there are really only four parts to a simple sentence—the subject, its adjective modifiers, the verb, and its adverbial modifiers. If you choose to separate the direct object from the other modifiers of the verb to lay stress upon it, as you may well prefer, do not let the pupil lose sight of the fact that the object is really an adverbial modifier limiting the action of the verb. Then show that complex and compound sentences are only reduplications of the simple sentence.

We would go even further in this simplification and implant in the youthful mind as early as may be the logical conception of a sentence, as consisting of but two parts, the subject and the predicate, whose identity is affirmed or denied by the copula.

Thus simplified, grammar is shorn of its usual terrors, the young mind is not confused, and time is gained for more thorough training in language in motion.

As to the methods to be employed to increase an insufficient vocabulary and to strengthen the grasp of language-idioms, we will all agree that nothing can be so effective as reading—very much reading—reading at all ages and at all stages of school life, accompanied by daily practice in composition.

There is a tendency to divorce composition from reading as though they were unrelated studies. This tendency has, perhaps, been encouraged by the practice of the college in sending out separate papers in these subjects. In doing so the college sought to conform its papers to what it understood to be the practice in the schools, and so give the candidate full credit for what proficiency he may have attained. Nevertheless, the practice is not approved; the sending out of separate papers will be discontinued.

It is easy to sympathize with the teacher who divorces composition from reading. He is disgusted with the sterility and insincerity with which the pupil tries to write something about what he has read and imperfectly comprehends, and he seeks a subject with which the pupil is familiar and upon which he can write simply and naturally. This subject is usually a sport or some form of physical pleasure which the pupil has experienced. Now, no one will claim that athletic sports or pleasant drinks have any especial thought-awakening power. No matter how much the youth may enjoy them, his pleasure is mostly animal, and when he has said that he likes them he has said about all that he thinks. It is true that with effort he may be taught to ruminate on these pleasures and squeeze out a thought or two more, but is the game worth

the candle? Why not use the effort thus expended to teach him to think intelligently and honestly of what has a far higher literary value and thought-awakening power; that is, his reading? We would have composition and reading go hand in hand from the earliest years. From the first school grade to the senior college class we should strive to make books an experience as intimate, as interesting, and as natural as any that can be met on the playground. Only by thus holding the youthful mind steadily to books can it be made to absorb correct forms and to acquire the habit of thinking and expressing itself in idiomatic language.

But how can we do this? We labor assiduously to make literature interesting to the pupil, and with indifferent success. We tell him much about the author, his early life, his hardships, and the pupil may be much interested, but he is left wholly untouched by the book itself. Now, our object is to draw him to the book by the magnetism of the book itself; we can not push him. Our task, then, is to study the child himself and to strive to find how we can excite his interest in what we would have him read. Each child is more or less of a problem in himself, different in many respects from all others, and to secure a hold on each individual we must search out those experiences which have keenly interested each one and seek to connect some one of these experiences with the book to be read. The youth should be led to find something of himself in what he reads. Perhaps the hero's name is like his. If so, point it out; it may touch a nerve. If any of the characters in the book have any experiences or suffer any misfortune, even remotely similar to those of the pupil, call his attention to it; it may draw him powerfully.

In this connection we remember the awakening of one young man to the beauties of poetry. He said: "When I was about 18 all verse above Mother Goose was so much deadwood. Then one day I happened to take up a copy of Mrs. Browning's *Lady Geraldine's Courtship*. Reading a few lines, I came to the words, 'I am humbled who was humble; friend, I bow my spirit o'er you.' And, further on—

"She was sprung of English nobles, I was born of English peasants.

What was I that I should love her, save for competence to pain?"

"They struck a sympathetic chord in my breast, for here was the note of a fellowship in misfortune. My loss of hearing had put me in the class of that caste-ridden peasant poet, and my whole nature responded to the touch. Instantly that deadwood verse was aflame, and I read on in shining words the turgid thoughts and feelings that had often surged through my own breast. From this I passed to 'Tennyson's Locksley Hall,' where the appeal to my feelings was similar; then on to others, embodying shadows of my sorrows, ambitions, and ideals."

We know of at least one other cultured man who has on many occasions expressed a great admiration for Mrs. Browning's poem, going so far as to rank it among the greatest in the language. We do not know that he has analyzed the feelings on which he bases this judgment; but if he has done so candidly, we venture to think that they are similar to those of the young man that we have cited.

These instances of the manner in which people develop an interest in books when left to themselves but enforce the principle which those who have read diligently in the lives of men of letters recognize as universal: Whenever a man discovers the charm of literature, he discovers therein nothing but himself. In this light, the Yankee who said that Plato had got hold of some of his ideas was not so very far wrong. The object of our teaching, then, should be to cultivate in the pupil the faculty of recognizing himself in the books that he reads. When we have led his mind to do this without direction, we shall have succeeded in teaching literature; and not only this, but we shall have implanted in the youth a well-spring of pleasure and profit that will deepen and strengthen his powers of thought and well fit him for the work of the college, and for the broader work of the world.

The limits of this paper allow me to suggest only in a general way specific methods of treating a book with a class of readers. With some it is well, before taking up the book, to require them to produce something in the same style as the prospective reading; of course, under the promptings of the teacher. If it is "The Pilgrim's Progress," let them try their hands at an allegory; if it is "The Deserted Village," let them recall as many as they can of the incidents and pleasures of their own childhood home, and their impressions of the various people that they knew. Never mind how crude these attempts



may be; if they awaken any interest in their authors, they will have served their end. Then let the children compare their efforts; and, finally, lead them to understand that Bunyan and Goldsmith have done what they have been trying to do. They will doubtless be interested to note how these writers have met the difficulties that they have bungled over, and interested to find in the characters depicted by these authors resemblances to the people that they have known and tried to describe.

It will be well, too, for them to try to put some of their work into the rhymed couplets of Goldsmith. At first blush this may seem absurd, but we think there is no other way as effective in initiating a student into the beauties of verse. If he, by reason of congenital deafness, can not comprehend the rhythm and harmony of the verse, he can, at least, appreciate the felicity of expression, the picturesqueness of phrase, and the illuminating effect of apt simile and metaphor. If he is to master these he must try to imitate them. Imitation is the key to success. The pupil must serve a long apprenticeship in imitation before the metaphorical twists of words will come to him as though by intuition, therefore have him imitate all forms of composition.

Of course, the teacher will find it hard to apply the method here hinted at to some of the readings specified for admission to the college; but, if this method has been faithfully followed in selected readings through the earlier grades, the difficulties of the more abstruse readings will not be insuperable, for by its practice the pupil's grasp will have been broadened and his perception sharpened to the point where he can find himself even in Burke's "Speech on conciliation with America."

Again, the teacher may complain of lack of time for such treatment of each work; but we must remember that our object is not to get through a given number of books in a given time, but rather to give our youth a love for reading and a command of language, and the power to think. If they have acquired these in good measure, they can fearlessly apply for admission to the college. We will not turn them away.

#### (c) IN ALGEBRA, DR. A. G. DRAPER.

This study, being but a wider development and generalization of arithmetic, requires for its successful prosecution an intelligent command of arithmetical principles and operations. Indeed, it is not too much to say that a pupil well grounded in arithmetic is thereby largely fitted for progress in each succeeding branch of mathematics.

Looking to algebra, the pupil should cultivate especially analysis, factoring, cancellation, fractions, common and decimal; longitude and time, percentage, simple interest, ratio, simple proportion, involution, and evolution of the square root. This, indeed, leaves out many of the commercial and other features of arithmetic; whatever of these the pupil can add will be so much to the good. In this whole study it is greatly more important that the pupil gain an intelligent insight into underlying principles than that he cipher out any number of examples following set rules.

The textbook recommended is "Wentworth's New School Algebra." While not a work of the most advanced type, it is sufficient to prepare well for the college course. It has many merits. Simplicity at the start is one. In the first two chapters only positive quantities are used. In the second chapter the equation and the principles upon which its solution depends are clearly stated and illustrated, followed at once by a great number of examples, both abstract and in the applied form of problems. These last, while to the deaf pupil, because of his comparative inability to construe language, perhaps the most difficult, are at the same time the most valuable and interesting part of algebra, since they call for mental exercises far beyond those required in that great part of algebraic work which is largely mechanical. This textbook meets the need admirably, giving a very great number of well graduated problems at each stage of advance.

Its chapter upon the special rules of multiplication and division and that upon factoring are also excellent. Too much stress can not be laid upon factoring, for it is the key to very many difficulties in later work.

A mastery of literal equations, simple and quadratic, is desirable, both because of the training it gives and because it is often necessary to handle these in the higher mathematics.

In simultaneous equations not much time need be given to those involving more than two unknowns; if time permits, these can be brought in at a later stage. Similarly, no great time need be given to evolution beyond the square



root. At first let the effort be rather to confirm in the pupil an understanding of the principles of elimination and of evolution.

The theory of exponents, radicals, and quadratics are well treated in this book, with abundant examples. If pressed for time, the instructor may well take, say, the first 20 examples in each group, deferring the others.

The examination paper for admission will cover the first 19 chapters—that is, to simultaneous quadratics. It will be fair and practical, without far-fetched features or "catches."

A MEMBER. Would you use "First Steps in Algebra" as a stepping stone to the larger book?

Dr. GALLAUDET. I will ask Prof. Hall to answer that.

Mr. HALL. I will ask first how much time you intend to give to it—one year?

A MEMBER. Two years.

Mr. HALL. Then I think your idea would be all right—to use another book for one year.

Mr. WESTON JENKINS. What I am going to say you may consider in the light of a hypothetical question. I have been stumbling along trying to solve the question how to prepare for Gallaudet. I have the most advanced classes in our school. Two of the young ladies last year intended to take the Gallaudet examination. They were studying Latin. I said to the young ladies, "You will have to do the work yourselves; I can not give you any time in school. I shall try to stop as I pass your desk for a word or a glance at your work, and I can give you some help one or two evenings in the week, but can not give you any time in school." I finally hit on this plan: I go to the schoolroom about 15 minutes before the session opens and write down a few things I have seen or heard or thought of in English, and, something on the same order, I put down about as much in Latin. If you can imagine the Latin required to describe a basketball game or an automobile ride, you will get my idea. These girls then translate my Latin into English, and what I have jotted down in English they convert into Latin. It is a sort of puzzle for them to cipher out.

Dr. FAY. The plan selected by Mr. Jenkins is an admirable one, adding to the interest of the study and giving them a knowledge of Latin they can not acquire in any other way.

Prof. H. E. Day read the following paper on "Gallaudet College and the Congenitally Deaf Pupil."

#### THE RELATION OF THE COLLEGE TO THE CONGENITALLY DEAF.

The topic assigned me for discussion was the "Relation of the college to the congenitally deaf." In looking up the statistics of nearly 1,000 students who have entered the college, I have found so many who became deaf at the age of 2 years or less that I decided to give them special consideration under the name of quasi congenitally deaf.

Since the college was founded 916 students have been admitted. One hundred and seventy-one of this number have been recorded as congenitally deaf, or 18½ per cent of the whole number admitted. The records show that 143 more young men and women lost their hearing at the age of 2 years or less. I have called these quasi congenitals. The sum total of congenitally deaf and quasi congenitally deaf who have been admitted to the college is 314. This makes a total of 34½ per cent of all students admitted who have lost their hearing at the age of 2 years or less.

I have been unable to find any record of the ages at which 68 students became deaf. From other statistics it is only fair to assume that at least 20 per cent of these men and women were congenitally or quasi congenitally deaf, making a total of 327 out of the 916 who may not be regarded as seminautes.

Recently the statement has been made that the entrance requirements for Gallaudet College have been and are such that it is impossible for a congenital deaf student to enter, or that, should he be admitted, he is unable to complete the prescribed course. A few statistics will prove the falsity of this statement.

In the early days of the college, between the years 1869 and 1881, 10 classes graduated. One hundred and fourteen pupils were enrolled in these classes. Twenty-two of these young men were born deaf, 16 became deaf at the age of 2 years or less, making a total of 38 congenital and quasi congenital deaf out of a total of 114 admitted, or 33½ per cent.

Of these 114 students admitted 44 graduated; 5 of these 44 were born deaf; 1 is recorded as quasi deaf. Of the 44 graduates 13½ per cent were congenitally or quasi congenitally deaf.

It is rather interesting to compare these statistics of the first 11 graduating classes with the records of the last 10 years.

Years.	Number of students who entered.	Congenitally deaf students who entered.	Quasi congenitally deaf students who entered.	Total congenitally and quasi congenitally deaf who entered.	Percentage of class not semi-mutes.	Number of graduates.	Congenitally deaf graduates.	Quasi congenitally deaf graduates.	Total congenitally and quasi congenitally deaf graduates.	Percentage of graduating class not to be considered semi-mutes
1902.....	33	11	6	17	51.0	20	4	3	7	35
1903.....	44	8	4	12	35.0	16	4	1	5	31
1904.....	27	5	5	10	37.0	14	3	2	5	35
1905.....	33	6	8	13	36.0	11	2	0	2	18
1906.....	25	5	6	11	44.0	11	2	2	4	36
1907.....	25	8	6	14	56.0	8	4	0	4	50
1908.....	41	10	7	17	40.9	15	2	3	5	33
1909.....	30	14	5	19	63.0	9	3	2	5	55
1910.....	29	6	4	10	34.0	11	1	5	6	54
1911.....	29	9	3	12	41.0	13	6	1	7	58
Total.....	316	81	54	135	42.0	128	31	19	50	39

In the last 10 classes, out of a total enrollment of 316 students admitted, 128 have graduated. Of these 128 graduates, 50 are congenitally or quasi congenitally deaf, making a total of 39 per cent in these 10 classes who may not be regarded as semimutes.

Of the 316 students admitted, 135 are enrolled as congenitally or quasi congenitally deaf, or 42 per cent.

This enrollment of 42 per cent of all students in the classes of 1902-1911, inclusive, as congenital or quasi congenital compares very favorably with the enrollment of 33½ per cent of the years 1869-1881, while a record of 39 per cent of deaf or quasi congenital deaf graduates for the years 1902-1911, inclusive, compares even more favorably than 13½ per cent for the years 1869-1881.

It is my opinion that more congenitally deaf are thought to enter State schools than actually do. My idea in regard to this is based entirely upon the statistics of the Columbia Institution. Of the first 900 admitted to the institution, including both the college and the Kendall School, 196 are enrolled as congenitally and 194 as quasi congenitally deaf, a total of 390 per cent who may not properly be regarded as semimutes.

The raising of the standard of the college has caused some criticism. It is thought that the advanced standard required for admission will still further reduce the number of congenitally deaf from entering and completing the college course. This is yet to be seen. Of the 18 pupils who entered in the fall of 1910 to graduate with the class of 1915, 3 are recorded as congenital, 6 as quasi congenital, making a total of 50 per cent of the entire class who may not be regarded as semimutes. From my own experience in teaching this class, 4 of these congenitally deaf young men and women are as capable of completing the course and graduating with honor as any semimute in the class.

To me it seems preferable to keep the standard of the college as high as possible, so that the students who come may obtain a sound education rather than to lower the standard so that even more congenitally deaf may enter.

## CONFERENCE ON THE VALUE OF PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SCHOOL ATHLETICS.

Directed by Mr. ROBERT E. ERD, Michigan.

1. Are our school standards of physical education as high as they should be?
2. Does not physical training, in view of its effects on the intellect and the will as well as the body, deserve to become a compulsory subject in schools and colleges, and to receive corresponding credit in the system of marking?
3. Does not a large percentage of our institution children particularly need corrective physical training and instruction in the principles of hygiene?
4. What should be the organized departments of physical education?
5. In what way has physical training a direct bearing on the welfare of defectives and moral degenerates?
6. What place should athletics occupy in the school life?
7. Are some forms of athletic competition liable to lead to injurious results?
8. What amount of time should be given gymnasium exercises and out-door muscular activities in the school schedule?
9. Can satisfactory results be obtained when the children do not change from their school costumes to special garments for exercise?
10. Does natural play better supply the needs for physical relaxation than formal exercises and progressive games?
11. What should be the qualifications, duties, and remuneration of a competent physical director?
12. How many teachers and officers cooperate with the physical director in securing for the children the early foundations of health?

1. Are our school standards of physical education as high as they ought to be?

In many of our schools physical education is more incidental than systematic.

School work is necessarily sedentary and confining. As a result the muscles of many pupils are flabby and the pupils are slow in their work and gait and show a general lack of animation. One year of corrective work, or general body-building during the growing period, is worth more than two or three years of ordinary exercise after the period of normal growth and greatest development has practically passed.

It is not right to put a pupil to work in the shops at too early an age, and it is wrong to rapidly advance a pupil with a weak, undersized body, but with a brain developed beyond the normal. When a boy goes to college he should enter as well trained in body as in mind.

We should be willing to give as much attention to the development of a high type of human beings as we so willingly give to the development of superior turnips or prize cows.

School authorities should consider the experiences of former pupils who have failed to succeed in life on account of poor health and a lack of physical endurance, the result of defective physical education and training.

At the present time the tide of public opinion is turning more and more to a recognition of the value of physical education, and we can no longer be content to merely teach hygiene out of a textbook. In several States bills have recently been passed requiring a regular course of physical training in all public schools.

2. Does not physical training, in view of its effects on the intellect and the will, as well as on the body, deserve to become a compulsory subject in schools and colleges and to receive corresponding credit in the system of marking?

The ancient Greeks were the most powerful nation on earth at the time when they practiced physical training faithfully; but when

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they neglected their athletic exercises and allowed their bodies to become weakened it sounded the death knell of their power.

The Swedish people owe their racial vigor and their fine physique to the work of Ling.

In Germany there is a system of physical training which is compulsory in the governmental departments and in the schools. The aim of the gymnastics is hygienic and recreative.

America can not afford to be behind in this matter.

Every child has a right to physical training, and our pupils should be brought to recognize the natural relationship between a sound mind and a sound body.

Pupils should be required to give evidence of personal health and ability—physical as well as mental. There should be a physical as well as a mental requirement for business life and for admission to college. Physical training, properly graded, should be an actual part of the curriculum of educational institutions. A pupil may pass a mechanical examination in physiology and hygiene, but no credit should be given for work that has not been actually and effectually done. Marking should be based on, first, effort; second, achievement; third, mental and physical results.

3. Does not a large percentage of our institution children particularly need corrective physical training and instruction in the principles of hygiene?

Dr. Kellogg, of the Battle Creek Sanitarium, says:

There is an enormous amount of unnecessary invalidism and disease which could be prevented or cured by proper physical development and hygiene.

Many of our pupils need corrective gymnastics for the correction of diseases and deformities and defects of posture; also educational gymnastics for the development of facility in the use of various parts of the body, and hygienic gymnastics for the development of organic vigor. They need exercises that will strengthen the tired back muscles and stimulate the sluggish heart and inactive digestion and which will send the blood circulating through the whole system. The result of rationally prescribed exercises would be a better carriage, sounder tissues, greater endurance and recuperative powers, and more grace of motion and repose.

Our pupils in particular need to understand and apply the principles of hygiene and to possess organic vigor to make them desirable citizens after they leave school.

There have been numerous observations made of the ignorance of hygienic conditions shown in the home life of a good many graduates of schools for the deaf.

4. What should be the organized departments of physical education?

The organized departments of a school's system of physical education should include periodical medical, general physical, and dental examinations and a regular hygienic and sanitary supervision of the pupils' various departments of living. The medical examination should particularly note the condition of eyes, ears, and throat, and it should be borne in mind that the general state of health and mentality depends largely on the condition of the teeth. It is of great importance that the children should be taught, first, the ways and means of securing and conserving health; second, the influences of certain abnormal conditions and habits on health; third, regard-



ing some of the common causes of disease and the carriers of disease; fourth, defenses against disease and the nature of some of our common diseases.

Instruction in physical exercises and athletics should be given in individual and mass drills in the gymnasium, in the swimming pool, on the track and field, and in various games.

5. In what way has physical training a direct bearing on the welfare of defectives and moral degenerates?

The physical conditions of defectives and degenerates should be kept as favorable as possible by nourishing food, regular outdoor exercise, bathing, ample sleep, and careful attention to bodily functions and habits. The mental awakening resulting from an improved state of nutrition and bodily vigor alone is often striking.

For the mentally defective constant occupation is the only security from deterioration. The dull intellect must be reached by a series of carefully arranged "sensorial" gymnastics. Their ultimate aim is to train the child to acquire knowledge from his sensations and to arouse the feeble powers of voluntary attention, observation, and comprehension. At an early age much of the neuromuscular training by gymnastics may be directed to the various handicrafts and simple manual labor. Defective coordination is corrected by exercises in climbing, catching and throwing, club swinging, and military tactics. Stooping may be corrected by exercises on the balancing beam.

Often the moral nature shares in the imperfections of the physical and mental state. There is a class of youthful degenerates who can be improved during their growing period through the training of the body, mental improvement following in time. It is from military tactics in particular that the unruly boy learns precision, attention, and readiness of movement.

6. What place should athletics occupy in school life?

Athletic contests if properly managed should be encouraged in all schools.

They cultivate the ability to make supreme and sustained efforts to see quickly and to decide promptly; they give the kind of bodily control which makes for physical efficiency; besides they teach co-operation and self control, perseverance, pluck, justice, and fairness. In fact, the moral training resulting from the right kind of athletics is as valuable as the physical.

The true end of all physical education is the development of normal men and women, and not to overemphasize the athletic training of a small number of participants whose ambition it is to shine in the school or college records.

A life insurance expert gives as his opinion that college athletes show better expectations of life than nonathletic men, and far better than the general average of insured men.

7. Are some forms of athletic competition liable to injurious results?

Boys and girls whose physical condition is not satisfactory should be debarred from athletic competition and training.

Moderation should be the watchword in the physical as in the mental education of the child.



All athletes should be required to take a preliminary course in physical training in the gymnasium until the heart and lungs have been strengthened, and all parts of the body are properly developed and there is no danger of overstraining any one part. If the athlete can not be made to follow such a course that will produce harmony, those who govern athletics should adopt rules which will lead to that end.

All who prepare for participating in competitive athletics should have proper dieting and correct care of the body and mind.

When athletes, who have done a great deal of competitive work, suddenly leave off their violent exercise and go into business, a weakening of the heart often ensues, simply because they have stopped too suddenly for the heart to adjust itself to the changed conditions. If the amount of exercise one is taking has to be reduced, it must be done very gradually or harm will result.

8. What amount of time should be given gymnasium exercises and outdoor muscular activities in the school schedule?

Thomas Jefferson once wrote to a friend concerning his studies, "Give about two hours of each day to exercise, for the health must not be sacrificed to learning." Less than two hours a day can not produce desired results. Haphazard and irregular physical and athletic exercises will not properly meet the demands of the growing bodies.

To give pupils formal or prescribed physical exercises in the afternoon after school hours is not so satisfactory, because by that time the pupils have spent most of their energy and are in a state of exhausted vitality. They then naturally prefer spontaneous outdoor activities, such as ball playing, swimming, skating, coasting, etc. In the afternoon after school hours is a good time for baseball, football, and basket-ball practice, and early morning for practicing track running, etc. I have secured excellent results by having classes of boys and girls take exercises in deep breathing and various gymnastics during the morning and midafternoon for a period of one-half to three-quarters of an hour daily.

9. Can satisfactory results be obtained when the children do not change from their school costumes to special garments for exercise?

I have had pupils who would refuse to take physical exercise of any kind for the sole reason that they did not wish to stretch, tear, or otherwise injure their clothes, and they did not wish their clothing to become filled with the odor of perspiration.

Every school should provide suits, athletic shoes, and shower baths for all pupils over at least 11 years of age. It is particularly advisable for pupils to take a shower bath after athletic sports and physical training exercises are over to cleanse the body of perspiration, and then to close up the pores so that there will no danger of taking cold.

10. Does natural play better supply the need for physical relaxation than formal exercises and progressive games?

Natural play out of doors is valuable for its provision of brain rest, and because of its power to increase the vitality. But play should not stimulate to too great nervous discharge, and should not make too great demand on the attention or require prolonged immobility.

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If left to their own devices children will most likely do the things they can do best and most easily, which will mean neglect in directions where they are weakest. Fresh air, sunlight, good food, and the best obtainable hygienic conditions are necessary conditions of physical vigor, but they alone will not remedy physical defects or correct faulty postures of the body, which require systematic physical training and the supervision of a competent physical director.

Gymnastics do not take the place of play, nor vice versa. For a perfect system of physical training the two should go hand in hand. They should be left to the judgment of an expert on physical training.

11. What should be the qualifications, duties, and remuneration of a competent physical director?

A competent physical director should know the difference between beneficial physical development and mere muscular development. He should have had a thoroughly satisfactory education (preferably a college training), some experience as an instructor, a knowledge of applied anatomy, physiology, and hygiene; a knowledge of different systems and principles of physical education, of gymnastic games and athletic sports, and of methods of instruction and class management.

The physical conditions and needs of our deaf children are very different from those of the hearing and the physical director should be able to grasp the situation from a scientific and practical standpoint.

Institutions often undervalue the importance of such work, failing to offer sufficient financial inducement to attract trained and educated men, or to give this department of teaching proper representation and recognition upon their faculties. As a result we often have, instead of specially trained hygienists, supervisors, printers, and tired-out school-teachers in charge of the physical well-being of our pupils. A man doing such double duty can not be expected to be able to direct his best thoughts and energy to one particular kind of work. The position of physical director should never be considered as one of minor importance, calling for merely a limited remuneration. A competent director deserves and has need of as large a salary as that paid to other members of the school faculty.

12. How many teachers and officers cooperate with the physical director in securing for the children the early foundations of health?

Postural defects and all incorrect attitudes that are permitted or overlooked anywhere outside the gymnasium will retard and interfere with the good work the physical director has undertaken to do.

Teachers and officers should take an interest in the physical as well as the mental welfare of their pupils to the extent of reminding them whenever necessary that such an attitude or action is harmful. They should make it a point to observe whether the lighting, heating, and ventilating conditions in the schoolrooms and shops are all that could be desired.

Cooperation is needed everywhere. The patient must cooperate with his physician in order to regain his health. The builder of a house must cooperate with the architect and contractor. One man can do little alone. He needs the cooperation of those among whom he works. Cooperation comes through the knowledge and apprecia-

tion one has of the work others are doing, as, for instance, a convention like this affords us all the opportunity for conference and social contact which makes possible a knowledge and appreciation of one another's work and methods.

Dr. Dobyns read letters of regret from Mrs. J. W. Barrett, of Iowa, and Supt. John P. Walker, of New Jersey.

On motion, properly seconded, the convention adjourned until 2.30 p. m.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

During the meeting of the convention Miss Caroline A. Yale gave two interesting and valuable talks upon the "Bell symbols of visible speech." As these talks were illustrated by the use of a chart, it has seemed best not to try to reproduce in the proceedings of the convention these addresses, which, without the use of the symbols, would necessarily be incomplete.

At 2.15 p. m. on Monday the representatives of the Little Paper Family met in the chapel of the institution. Mr. W. A. Connor, of Georgia, presided over the meeting. A paper written by Mr. W. A. Caldwell, of California, was read and ordered printed in the proceedings of the convention:

#### THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF OUR SCHOOL PAPERS.

By Mr. W. A. CALDWELL, of California.

This subject, like all Gaul, may be divided into three parts, and the temptation is strong to add that it requires *gall* to imagine that we can cover all the ground thus spread out invitingly before us. These are the three separate and distinct lines of endeavor—to educate the public, to educate the parents, to educate the pupils. Some of our brethren evidently aspire to educate a fourth class—the pedagogues. Whether it is wise thus to emulate the gatling gun and sweep the landscape clean may, as I say, be doubted.

The public does not desire to be educated, and in so far as the mass of the people are conscious at all of our solicitude respecting their unenlightened state, they view our concern with cheerful unconcern. They can not understand our feverish desire to correct their myopic consideration of the deaf as a class, and they evince no disposition whatever to profit by our "ringing editorials." They prefer to get their information, such as it is, from the popular and powerful periodicals of the day, and the amount of misinformation supplied by these same opulent and opaque contemporaries of ours is oftentimes bewildering to us who are familiar with the exact facts in the case. The educational value of our school papers, then, is certainly almost negligible, so far as it relates to the general public.

The parents: Here we have some reason for believing that our labors are not altogether in vain. We may be sure that in those families where there is affection for the children there will be an audience attentive to our appeal for the deaf member of the household—that he may be treated as the hearing ones are treated, with neither favoritism nor prejudice of any kind. We can do something to bring about a home atmosphere that shall add much to the deaf child's enjoyment of life and aid him in his intellectual growth. We can make plain to those who desire to be informed the importance of retaining speech where speech has been acquired before deafness intervened and of developing ability to read the lips. We can aid in extending knowledge of the manual alphabet, thus adding immeasurably to the possibilities offered to one who can no longer communicate by spoken language. If the world at large were once able to spell on the fingers, does any sane person suppose that this convenient means of quiet communication would ever be permitted to lapse into desuetude? It would become as fixed a part of the common-school curriculum as the multiplication table, and a great deal more popular.

However, I imagine it was not the public, the parents, nor the pedagogues that were in Mr. Connor's mind when he assigned this topic to me. He referred undoubtedly to the value of the school paper to the pupils. And here, indeed, is a promising field and a profitable one. How best to work it is the question. A daily leaflet in which are recorded the events of school life, together with a judicious modicum of current events from the outside world, appears to me the ideal arrangement. If it is desirable, as I think it is, to issue a larger sheet for circulation outside of the school, then much of the matter in the leaflet can be lifted for use in the weekly, and the parents can thus be kept in close touch with the pupils. If the printing office is to be a true educational power in the institution, the collection of news and the editing of the leaflet must be in the hands of a competent and careful editor. Personally, I have never been at all enthusiastic over the term "little paper family." The adjective "little," of course, describes accurately the school paper as its actual dimensions and the area of its field of influence and endeavor, but the name carries with it the suggestion of insignificance or unimportance, and to this view of it I emphatically dissent. I place the school paper, properly edited, second to no part of the school equipment. Please note that I say "properly edited." If it is the policy of the school to regard the paper as of little importance, then it certainly will be of little and lessening importance all the time. What qualifications should the editor have? The successful reporter on the great newspapers must first of all have a nose for news, and next must have the ability to present his report in a fashion that shall hold the reader. The same rule holds good in our own field of journalism. The editor must be his own reporter, which has its advantages, by the way. He must be an experienced teacher of the deaf if he is expected to be of the highest efficiency in his important work, and he must have a proper pride in his calling. If the management of the paper is conducted in haphazard fashion, first by one, then by another, with no special system, we can not expect valuable results. The patronizing if not actually contemptuous air which some teachers affect toward the school paper is not creditable, to say the least. If, indeed, the paper is run on such a plan as to justify this attitude toward it, then there is nothing more to be said. But such an undesirable state of things can hardly be if the one in charge appreciates the possibilities before him and has any ambition to accomplish results. His problem is to collect the news of the playground, the shops, and the classroom and present it in such a way as to attract the attention of the pupils and excite their interest, thus inducing them to take in ideas and mental impressions from the printed page. Is such an aim, such an ambition, of little importance? If so, then our schools for the deaf are of little importance and had better be turned at once into asylums for the maintenance and amelioration of the misinformed and the misguided.

BERKELEY, CAL., June 28, 1911.

#### BUSINESS MEETING.

The convention was called to order at 2.30 by Dr. Gallaudet.

Dr. GALLAUDET. We now assemble for the business meeting of the convention and the Chair will ask the secretary, as the first order of business, to read the report of the standing executive committee.

#### REPORT OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

DELAVER, WIS., July 10, 1911.

*To the Members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf:*

The executive committee of the convention begs leave to report that since the Ogden meeting few questions have come before it for settlement other than regular routine work.

The invitation to meet at Delavan in 1911 extended to the convention by the authorities of the Wisconsin School for the Deaf, through Supt. E. W. Walker, was accepted in the fall of 1908. Following the plans laid at Ogden, Vice President Dobyns has labored zealously and successfully on the preparation of the program which you are now enjoying.

About 400 bound copies of reports of former meetings have been distributed to a hundred different libraries in foreign countries.



The work of the bureau of information has been continued and the secretary makes the following report:

## Expenditures:

Postage (254 letters).....	\$5. 08
Printing.....	3. 25
Stationery, etc.....	90
Telegrams.....	3. 68
Typewriting and stenography.....	6. 00
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>18. 89</b>

## Application for positions:

As teachers.....	108
As teachers or supervisors.....	7
As supervisors.....	7
As matrons.....	4
As clerk.....	1
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>127</b>

## Applications from heads of schools or from school boards:

For trades teachers.....	4
For assistant matron.....	1
For matrons of homes for deaf.....	2
For supervisors.....	5
For one literary teacher.....	44
For two literary teachers.....	16
For three literary teachers.....	9
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>81</b>

## Positions filled:

Supervisors.....	2
Trades teachers.....	4
Literary teachers.....	30
Principal.....	1
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>37</b>

The treasurer has submitted the following report for the period from July 9, 1908, to July 13, 1911:

*Treasurer's Report, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.*

[From July 9, 1908, at Ogden, to July 7, 1911.]

## RECEIPTS.

From Acting Treasurer T. V. Archer, at Ogden.....	\$264. 00
From J. L. Smith, endowment fund (\$128.37 and interest, \$2.23).....	130. 60
From same, general fund (cash, \$14.55+\$546.03+interest, \$9.60).....	570. 18
	<b>\$964. 78</b>
From back dues.....	21. 00
From 5 membership fees.....	10. 00
From annual dues.....	194. 00
From Percival Hall, from sale of report.....	1. 00
	<b>226. 00</b>
From interest.....	91. 83
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>1, 282. 61</b>



## EXPENDITURES.

Telegrams to Dr. Gallaudet (vouchers 1 and 2)-----	\$3.35	
Exchange on drafts (3)-----	.30	
Utah School for Printing, etc. (4)-----	28.00	
J. L. Smith, expense account (5)-----	3.71	
Smith & Palmer, printing notices (6)-----	3.00	
A. C. Gaw, expense account (7)-----	156.00	
Printing notices (8)-----	2.00	
Printing postal-card receipts (9)-----	1.00	
Expenses bureau of information (10)-----	5.81	
Expenses of secretary, Percival Hall (11)-----	57.27	
Sending notices, receipts, etc. (treasurer)-----	6.62	
Salary of treasurer (1908-9)-----	25.00	
Expenses Percival Hall (12 and 12a)-----	5.03	
Sending 82 notices-----	1.64	
Warren Robinson, chairman industrial bureau (13)-----	25.00	
Sending postal receipts-----	.52	
Treasurer's salary (1909-10)-----	25.00	
J. R. Dobyns, bill for printing (14)-----	19.75	
J. R. Dobyns, bill for printing (15)-----	5.25	
J. R. Dobyns, bill for printing (16)-----	5.50	
Sending notices-----	.86	
J. R. Dobyns, bill for printing, etc. (17)-----	30.81	
Sending receipts-----	.40	
Card index file (treasurer)-----	1.50	
Extra cards for same-----	.40	
Percival Hall, bureau of publicity (18)-----	10.10	
Treasurer's salary (1910-11)-----	25.00	
Cards for membership receipts (19)-----	.55	
J. R. Dobyns, expense account (20)-----	35.48	
	<u>\$484.85</u>	
Balance-----		797.76
On hand (deposited):		
Endowment fund-----	146.83	
General fund-----	675.50	
		<u>822.33</u>
Due J. L. Smith-----		24.57
Balance-----		797.76

Dr. E. M. GALLAUDET, *President*.

DEAR SIR: We, the auditing committee, beg leave to report that we have examined the accounts of Treasurer J. S. Long covering the period from July, 1908, to July, 1911, and find the same to be correct and to agree with the vouchers presented.

Very respectfully submitted.

PERCIVAL HALL,  
FRANK M. DRIGGS,  
*Auditing Committee.*

The committee has received through Supt. W. A. Bowles an invitation from the authorities of the Virginia school to hold the next meeting of the convention in Staunton in 1914.

Your committee recommends that the sum of \$100 be paid annually from the general fund of the convention toward the support of the American Annals of the Deaf, and that this magazine be confirmed as the official organ of the Convention of American Inspectors of the Deaf.

Respectfully submitted by order of the executive committee.

PERCIVAL HALL, *Secretary*.

Dr. GALLAUDET. You have heard the report of the executive committee. The only recommendations in the report are those in respect to the financial assistance of the Annals and the confirmation of it as the organ of the convention. A word of explanation. We are in-

formed that the Annals' finances are in need of a little assistance. It hardly needs confirmation as the organ of the convention. It has been the organ of the convention for many years. It started out that way; then it was thought to be desirable to put it under the control of the conference of principals, but it did not cease to be the organ of the convention, although never so officially stated. It is asked that that be done. I will await a motion.

Mr. A. H. WALKER. I would like to amend that recommendation by substituting \$200 instead of \$100. I think the funds of the convention will permit of it, and I think it is the proper channel for the funds. I move the adoption of the report with this amendment.

The motion was seconded by Mr. Tate and unanimously carried.

Mr. SWILER. Mr. President and ladies and gentlemen of the convention, we have had such a good time, have had so many good things, that if we were not such exceedingly good people we might not be prepared for further good things. We trust, however, that it will work nothing more than good to all of us to listen to this tribute to one of the most honored members of this convention in an item, which I ask the privilege of reading, from the Atlanta (Ga.) Constitution of July 6, as follows:

#### WOULD HONOR PRINCIPALS.

In order to make it possible for the State to properly reward Prof. W. O. Conner, for nearly half a century principal of the State School for the Deaf at Cave Spring, Messrs. Anderson and Foster, of Floyd County, introduced a bill in the house yesterday authorizing the board of trustees of that institution to retire on substantial life pay any teacher who has served the school continuously for 35 years or more. Any principal retired may be given the title of "emeritus principal."

Prof. Conner is the father of the Cave Spring institution, and to him its great success is attributed. He has grown old in the service of the State and the afflicted. He is one of the country's leading authorities on the teaching and training of deaf-mutes.

The Floyd representatives also introduced a bill providing an appropriation of \$50,000 for improvements in the buildings and equipment of the Cave Spring School.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. There is one other business matter that should be taken up at this meeting—that is the invitation of the Staunton school to hold the next convention there. I move that invitation be placed in the hands of the executive committee and that the entire matter be left with the executive committee.

The motion was seconded and unanimously carried.

The election of officers was the next order of business.

Dr. N. F. WALKER. Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen of the convention, I desire to present before this body the name of one, for president, who has filled this position satisfactorily, I think, to all those who are here representing the schools for the deaf throughout the United States. Without a further statement I desire to place in nomination the name of Dr. E. M. Gallaudet.

Mr. CONNOR, of Georgia. I take sincere pleasure in seconding that nomination. Way back in 1868 I came in contact with Dr. Gallaudet for the first time. Since that time he has led the procession of those interested in the education of the deaf in the United States. He has taken part through stormy weather and clear, through cold and through heat; we have never known him to fail. He has always been faithful, always been true. Hence, from my heart comes that feeling that prompts me to second that nomination.

Mr. HARRIS TAYLOR. I wish to second the nomination of Dr. Gallaudet, and if I meet with a second, I wish to make a motion that the secretary be empowered to cast the ballot of the convention for Dr. Gallaudet.

Many seconds were received, and Dr. Dobyns having put the motion to vote it was unanimously carried. [Applause.]

Dr. GALLAUDET. My friends, it is difficult for me to express the feelings to which your action has given rise. I left my home for Delavan with the firm intention of declining to consider, even if asked to do so, the election to the presidency again of this convention. I had felt that it was not right for me to continue to hold that office, and to keep others, equally worthy of filling it, from taking it and having the honor of it. I even went so far as to wonder, if anything like that were proposed, if you wanted me to become a Diaz and hold on here until some Madero came up to kick me out. I reached Delavan, and up to last evening I had no other intention than that of declining to enter upon another term as president of this convention. But within the last 36 hours I have had representations made to me that it was really the unanimous desire of the members of this convention that I should take the office of president for another term, and although that went counter to my own personal wishes and imposed a duty I might wish to avoid, yet, in consideration of the relations that have existed between myself and all the members of the convention all these years, I thought if I was sure it was really the desire of the members I could not be ungracious enough to decline it. So, my dear friends, as a surprise to myself, I accept the office of president for another term. [Applause.]

Nominations for vice president were declared in order.

Mr. GREENER. I place in nomination the name of Dr. Dobyns, of Mississippi.

Dr. TATE. I second that nomination. We could not make a better choice, nor could we come upon one more entitled to the honor than Dr. Dobyns.

Dr. N. F. WALKER. I wish to add my voice to that second.

Mr. JONES. If there are no other nominations I move that the secretary be instructed to cast the ballot of the convention for Dr. J. R. Dobyns as vice president.

A unanimous vote was given and Dr. Dobyns declared elected.

Dr. DOBYNS. I will return my thanks in the next bulletin I issue. Nominations for secretary were declared in order.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. I would just do things at once and reelect all the officers. We have as our present secretary one who has filled that office most satisfactorily.

Secretary HALL. Just a few words. I wish very much the convention would excuse me from accepting this office, if that is what is being proposed. I appreciate the honor very much, but the actual work of getting out the convention report will be in other hands, and I will have a great deal of new work that is now devolving upon me, so I will appreciate it very much if you will excuse me and nominate one of the many worthy men to that office.

Dr. GALLAUDET. I thought Secretary Hall was going to explain to you the situation that would exist if he was elected secretary. The report of these proceedings is to be published by Congress. The law requires that it shall be transmitted from the secretary of this

association to the president of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. Now, as he is president of the institution for the deaf and dumb, he would be placed in the position of being compelled to transmit the report of these proceedings to himself. It would be in the hands of one person; he would have to be at both ends of the line.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. I understand the situation now. I will substitute the name of Prof. H. E. Day for that of Mr. Hall.

There were several seconds to the nomination of Mr. Day, and a motion made by Dr. Dobyns that the election be made unanimous and the ballot of the convention cast for Mr. Day was seconded and carried. Mr. Day was accordingly declared elected to the office of secretary.

Dr. GALLAUDET. Nominations for treasurer are now in order. You all know the present incumbent, Mr. J. S. Long, of Iowa.

Rev. Mr. CLOUD. I wish to place in nomination Mr. J. Schuyler Long, of Iowa.

Mr. CLARKE, of Washington. I move the nominations be closed and the secretary be instructed to cast the ballot of the convention for Mr. Long.

Motion unanimously carried and Mr. Long declared elected.

Dr. GALLAUDET. We have now to elect three directors. The present incumbents are Mr. R. O. Johnson, of Indiana; Mr. F. M. Driggs, of Utah; and Mr. E. McK. Goodwin, of North Carolina.

Mr. DRIGGS. I would like to place in nomination our host, Mr. E. W. Walker, of Delavan, Wis.

A motion made that the secretary cast the ballot of the convention for Mr. E. W. Walker was seconded and unanimously carried.

Mr. GOODWIN. I beg to offer the name of Mr. A. H. Walker, of the Florida school.

A motion for the secretary to cast the ballot of the association for Mr. A. H. Walker was unanimously carried.

Mr. JONES. I nominate Dr. Tate, of Minnesota, who has been a faithful member of the convention, and so far as I remember has never held any office. I move that the secretary be instructed to cast the ballot of the convention for Dr. Tate.

Motion seconded and unanimously carried.

The chair declared that E. W. Walker, of Wisconsin; A. H. Walker, of Florida; and Dr. Tate, of Minnesota, had been elected as directors.

Dr. GALLAUDET. This completes the election of officers up to the time of the next convention. We will now have the report of the nominating committee.

#### REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS.

The committee on nominations, consisting of F. D. Clarke (chairman), Miss Frances Wettstein, Mr. Gruver, Mr. Burt, and Mr. Bangs, reported the following nominations:

Normal section: Miss Caroline A. Yale, chairman.

Oral section: Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, chairman.

Auricular section: Mr. Harris Taylor, chairman.

Art section: Miss Mary B. Beattie, chairman.

Kindergarten section: Mr. R. O. Johnson, chairman.

Industrial section: Mr. Warren Robinson, chairman.

Western local section: Mr. T. P. Clarke, chairman.

Southern local section: Mr. Laurens Walker, chairman.

Eastern local section: Mr. Robert Patterson, chairman.

The above chairmen of committees were duly elected.

Dr. GALLAUDET. It was mentioned this morning that we had with us three of the fraternal delegates of the National Association of the Deaf, Mr. A. L. Pach of New York, and Rev. P. J. Hasenstab and Mr. W. I. Tilton, of Illinois.

We will be pleased to hear from them.

Mr. W. I. TILTON. It is unnecessary for us to express the pleasure that is ours in appearing before you to-day as fraternal delegates from the National Association of the Deaf and extending greetings on behalf of that organization.

At the Colorado convention, held in August, 1910, we had the pleasure of receiving as representatives of this association Drs. Dobyns and Argo, and are glad to have this opportunity of returning their call.

You are doubtless familiar with the object and aims of the national association, which may be broadly stated as having in view the advancement and welfare of the deaf as a whole. Its membership embraces over 300 deaf men and women from all parts of America.

Let us assure you in a fraternal way that your effort in the behalf of deaf children, educational, moral, spiritual, and social, has not been in vain. The existence and activity of the association in the past three decades is an ample evidence of the good your work has produced.

Another evidence is manifested in the many pursuits of industrial, professional, and educational life undertaken by the deaf in all parts of the country and in their happy social life among the hearing as well as within their own midst.

We have with us copies of resolutions adopted at the Colorado convention embodying the views of the association upon the sign language to which we would respectfully invite your consideration.

We are indeed glad to be here with our friends and teachers and trust that the relations pleasantly established between the two organizations may be long continued.

The secretary then read the following resolutions, adopted at the meeting of the deaf:

Whereas the sign language, as introduced in America by Clerc and developed by Gallaudet and other early educators of the deaf, is a most beautiful language of priceless value to the deaf;

*Resolved*, That any policy of education which tends to impair or destroy or restrict the use of this beautiful language is opposed to the best interests of the deaf;

*Resolved*, That we call upon schools for the deaf not only to preserve, but to improve on this sign language, and to give systematic instruction in the proper and correct use thereof.

Whereas while we fully recognize and appreciate the value of speech to the deaf, we also recognize the difficulty and even the impossibility of acquiring it by many of the deaf;

*Resolved*, That we favor the best oral instruction for those deaf who can profit by it;

*Resolved*, That where the attempt to acquire speech results in the sacrifice of mental development, we favor the employment of such methods as will secure the highest and broadest mental development.

That is what the combined system aims to do, and therefore we indorse the combined system.

Whereas speech reading is practicable only for individual conversation, and does not enable the deaf to understand sermons, lectures, debates, and the like; and,



Whereas the sign language offers the only practicable and satisfactory means by which the deaf may understand sermons and lectures, participate in debates and discussion, and enjoy mental recreation and culture;

*Resolved*, That it is the sense of this convention that all the deaf, including those taught by the oral method, should have the privilege of using the sign language while at school.

The above resolutions were adopted at the Convention of the National Association of the Deaf held at Colorado Springs, Colo., August 13, 1910, and are respectfully commended to the attention and careful consideration of all friends of the deaf.

OLOF HANSON,

*President National Association of the Deaf.*

Mr. A. H. WALKER. At the last meeting of this convention, held in Ogden, I offered the following resolution:

Whereas it is a fact well known to all educators of the deaf that there is a widespread and erroneous public opinion as to the possible attainments and accomplishments of the deaf generally, and,

Whereas such public misapprehension works to the great detriment of pupils, teachers, and superintendents of the American schools for the deaf; be it, therefore,

*Resolved*, That this convention now assembled do appoint a committee of three to prepare and present to this convention at its next meeting, for adoption or rejection, a statement for general public dissemination, fully describing the accomplishments and limitations of the graduates of our schools.

I understand that a committee was appointed at that time and are ready to report. Dr. Burt is chairman.

Permission having been received from the chair, Dr. Burt read the following report:

A STATEMENT DESCRIBING THE ACCOMPLISHMENTS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE GRADUATES OF OUR SCHOOLS.

The most natural way of approaching this subject is to reverse the order of the title and treat of the limitations of the deaf first, for it is to the handicap that limits their range of accomplishments that their place in our social economy is due. It is necessary to dwell at some length on the methods of instructing the deaf, and to point out the difficulties they experience in acquiring an education. Few persons have a realizing sense of the terrible affliction that deafness entails; how the eye is substituted for the ear in our efforts to reach the brain; how the years in which the normal child surely, though unconsciously, lays the foundation for its future education are the years in which the mind of the deaf child lies dormant; how the natural curiosity and acquisitiveness of early childhood is suppressed by the operation of his infirmity; how his natural disposition is warped by his misunderstanding others and not being himself understood. All these are only too well known to teachers of the deaf, but unfortunately are not known to the general public.

When in the course of his life the deaf child is placed in school an artificial method of instruction takes the place of the usual means of conveying thought. He begins his school career where the infant at its mother's knee begins its attempt to master the language of those about it. The language of his parents is to him literally and truly an unknown tongue, and it is to the acquisition of this that the long years of his tutelage are spent. For many years the subjects taught in the public schools are subordinate to this, and it is small wonder that his progress at first is slow and discouraging. He lacks the medium of acquiring definite information. So his knowledge of the phenomena about him is hazy and imperfect. As he struggles along from year to year the haze gradually clears and he recognizes the facts in their proper perspective but not till his efforts have made a permanent impress on his mind and differentiated him in a way from his brothers and sisters. This is the usual experience of the congenitally deaf person gifted by nature with average intelligence, in whom habits of study are early formed and who, above all, is blessed with sensible parents who keep him in school till he has completed the prescribed course of study in our State institutions, no matter whether the system of instruction be the manual, combined, or oral.

If this is the condition of those who are able to master the prescribed course of study of our institutions for the deaf, what may be said of the condition of

the pupils who from adverse circumstances or deficient intellect are discharged from school midway in their course? Their limitations are still more marked, but strange to say, the intercourse and friction with the world into which they are thrown, together with the forced responsibility of earning a livelihood, often sharpen their wits and they soon acquire marked facility in the use of colloquial language, though they seldom progress beyond. The great realm of literature is sealed to them.

What then are the limitations of many of "the educated deaf" as they come from our schools? They have a fair knowledge of the studies of the public schools, such as arithmetic, geography, history, etc., but are deficient in a comprehensive knowledge of the English language. They are able to read the newspapers and simple books but lack a critical knowledge of current subjects that occupy the minds of thoughtful men. They fail to get into the current of the life about them but find themselves in eddies that swirl about in restricted areas.

Let us now turn to the accomplishments of the deaf. Here we find more encouragement. They find remunerative employment in the various walks of life. Some are printers, carpenters, shoemakers, farmers; others are artists, architects, artificers, teachers, and missionaries of the deaf. But the range of their activities is restricted. They can not enter many of the professions. They are shut out from the great field of transportation such as railroading, steamship navigation, etc. They are denied access to the extra hazardous occupations and are discriminated against by employers who do not care to take the trouble to communicate with them.

Over against these limitations there are compensations that should be placed to their credit: They are usually willing workers, correct in their habits of life, free from the use of intoxicating liquors, and, above all, faithful in the discharge of duties intrusted to them. As they are not distracted by the conversation and noises of those about them, they give undivided attention to the tasks in hand. One of the most valuable assets that a man can possess is that of character, and it may be said without fear of contradiction that our institutions develop character in a higher degree than is possible in the home life of the average family. Protected as our pupils are and surrounded by teachers and officers of the highest character, their minds are molded without the presence of adverse conditions that inevitably prevail in our cities and towns. Let us not minimize the terrible handicap that deafness entails upon its victims, but let us give to the children of silence the full credit that is due them in their efforts to make up for their infirmity by diligence, right living, cheerfulness, thrift, and a quiet acceptance of the fate they are called upon to endure.

The claim often made that by early and proper training in speech and lip reading the children of our schools may as a class be discharged from the special schools for their training in a few years and take their places in the public schools on an equal footing with normal children is extravagant and misleading. The presence of such children in a public school is an injustice to the teacher, to the deaf child, and to the children whom the school is intended to educate. The deaf child has not a sufficient command of the English language to understand the language addressed to normal children in their recitations, nor has he the ability to read the lips of his teacher so accurately and unerringly as greatly to profit by instruction, even when the language is within his comprehension. And if the aforementioned handicap did not exist, he would fail to see the lips of the teacher when her face would be turned from him, as it necessarily would be much of the time during the recitation. These reasons are quite sufficient to debar him from the public schools. Indeed, the claim that deaf persons, even those most highly educated by our oral schools, may take their places in society on an equal footing with normal people must be received with skepticism or incredulity. Deaf people are inevitably isolated by the very nature of their infirmity, and it is not a kindness to make unfounded claims in their behalf.

The few deaf students who have maintained a satisfactory record in the high schools and through college have had superior minds and often unusual advantages of wealth, enabling them to employ tutors and private instruction to supplement their regular instruction. These are too few to offer encouragement to parents for like results.

The best that oralism can do, in its present state of development, is to fit them for the intercourse with their fellows that is necessary for their ordinary physical well-being and for restricted social enjoyment among members of their own families and especially attentive and considerate friends. It does not fit any considerable number of the deaf to enjoy without embarrassment, either

as guests or as hosts, the ordinary social intercourse of the home or of general society. The best interests of deaf children are secured by placing them in institutions where they may receive, in addition to schoolroom instruction, the benefits of industrial training and institution discipline. In case this is not practicable the next best course is to send such children to day schools for the deaf. The pathetic travesty of the practically deaf child spending several of the early—the best—years of his life in a vain effort to secure his education in the school of his hearing brother or sister is a matter of common knowledge and sincere regret to all superintendents of experience in our institutions. To encourage the hope that the majority, or even a large minority, of the deaf can be transferred from special schools for the deaf (whatever method may be there pursued) to ordinary schools for the hearing is, in our opinion, not based on the reasonable expectation of experience, nor is it best for the deaf or their friends that they should follow such encouragement.

THOMAS L. MOSES.

WM. N. BURT.

J. W. JONES.

Dr. DOBYNS. I want to ask a question of personal privilege. For fear the convention might think I did not appreciate the honor conferred upon me by my reelection, I wish to express my thanks and say that I know of no higher honor than to be the first assistant to my distinguished and beloved chief.

Dr. CLARKE. At the Ogden convention there was notice given that a motion would be made at this meeting to amend the constitution of this convention. I wish for an official ruling from the chair. Will that notice hold good for a future meeting of this convention or must a new notice be made?

Dr. GALLAUDET. It would hold good.

Dr. CLARKE. We are here to kill that motion, and we would like to get through with it. Why doesn't the one who made it bring it forward? It was to amend the constitution so as to sanction the use of only oral methods of teaching and contained a declaration that signs must be rigidly excluded from all schools for the deaf. I would like to have that question either indefinitely postponed or voted on now. We don't want it hanging over us like a rattlesnake.

Mr. WALKER, of Florida. The minutes show no such motion.

Dr. GALLAUDET. Nor is the chair aware of any.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. I think the constitution needs to be amended in a very vital particular, and I would very much like to have it amended, but I doubt whether enough members have paid their fees and dues to make enough to amend the constitution. The treasurer would have to tell us how many members are present to vote.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. There are over 200 in Delavan. Over 200 have paid their dues.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. The only reason I desire to change the constitution is owing to the fact that I do not think we are working on a solid basis financially. I mean that we have a membership fee of \$2, with annual dues of \$1. Now we only meet every three years, which would mean dues of \$3. But instead of paying the annual dues many come up and pay a new membership fee of \$2, thereby depriving the convention of the dollar in dues. Some plan ought to be promulgated by which the dues would be less than the membership fee, giving some incentive to the members to keep up their dues year by year. I have but one suggestion, and that is, not to issue a second membership to any person. If he has joined the convention once and wishes to come back to another meeting in full stand-

ing, he must keep his dues paid up. In other words, if he misses one meeting and goes six years, he must pay \$6 to retain his membership. The other suggestion is that we raise our membership fee to \$3, but that will not do just what I intended; it will not give a member an incentive to pay his dues regularly and keep them paid. He can come to each convention he wishes—perhaps having missed one or two—and enjoy all the privileges of membership by the payment of the \$3. I think our constitution is weak in this particular and should be put on a better financial basis.

Dr. CLARKE, of Washington. In view of the recent financial statement read awhile ago, it seems the best way would be to lower the annual dues, and that dues of 50 cents a year would fill the bill.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. We do not want to go down.

Dr. CLARKE, of Washington. What do you want to do with it?

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. I would like to pay \$1,000 into the Annals and have a paid secretary.

I move that our constitution be amended by raising our membership fee from \$2 to \$3. The annual dues are \$1 anyway.

Dr. N. F. WALKER. I think this is out of order. No notice was given at Ogden of any amendment of the constitution, therefore none can be made now.

Dr. GALLAUDET. It is not necessary to give a notice in advance for an amendment. This constitution may be amended by an affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members present, provided that at such meeting 150 voting members be present. In order to adopt this amendment it would be necessary for us to find if there are 150 active members here, and then, if two-thirds of them vote to amend, it can be done.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Does it mean 150 members in the hall or present at the convention. I wish the chairman would construe that.

Dr. GALLAUDET. The chair would decide that it means members present at the meeting of the convention, not at the meeting of a given day. It may be amended at any meeting of the convention.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Then the chair rules that the constitution could be amended at the present time?

Mr. GALLAUDET. Yes; but there would have to be two-thirds of all members present in Delavan voting for the amendment; that would be 100 members in favor of amendment.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. There are 212 members present.

Mr. MILLIGAN. While this proposed increase in membership fee would not particularly affect superintendents, I think it would be felt by many of the teachers present. Therefore, as we have money enough in the treasury without the raise, I object to it.

Dr. GALLAUDET. It is for the admission fee.

Mr. MILLIGAN. But it would cost them \$1 extra.

Dr. GALLAUDET. It wouldn't cost those now present anything extra. It is for the future members.

The motion to amend the constitution by raising the membership fee from \$2 to \$3, being duly seconded, was put to vote and lost.

Mr. Long, of Iowa, moved that Mr. Silvado, of Brazil, be elected an honorary member of the convention.

Motion seconded and carried.

On motion, properly seconded, the convention adjourned to meet Tuesday morning at 9 a. m.



## ORAL SECTION.

TUESDAY, JULY 10, 1911.

## PROGRAM, SIXTH DAY.

9 a. m. Called to order by the president. Paper, "The possibilities of oral methods in the instruction of deaf children," by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter.

Discussion by Messrs. E. A. Gruver, New York; F. W. Booth, Washington, D. C.; and R. O. Johnson, Indiana.

9.30 a. m. Conference on "Lip reading as a means of communication in teaching," directed by Mr. T. V. Archer, North Carolina.

10 a. m. Conference on "The value of visible speech as a means of developing and correcting speech," directed by Miss Caroline A. Yale, Massachusetts.

10.30 a. m. Conference on "Language teaching under oral methods," directed by Mr. Samuel G. Davidson, Pennsylvania.

11 a. m. Conference on "The necessary educational requirements of candidates for oral teaching," directed by President Percival Hall, Gallaudet College.

11.30 a. m. Conference on "The normal training of oral teachers," directed by Mr. Harris Taylor, New York.

Afternoon. Opportunity to visit the famous Yerkes Observatory at Lake Geneva.

8 p. m. Lecture, "Education and democracy," by Prof. E. J. Ward, of the University of Wisconsin.

The convention was called to order at 9 o'clock by President Gallaudet and opened with prayer by Rev. Mr. Flick.

The work of the oral section was begun by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, of Pennsylvania, in a paper, entitled "Possibilities of oral methods in the instruction of deaf children," as follows:

## THE POSSIBILITIES OF ORAL METHODS IN THE INSTRUCTION OF DEAF CHILDREN.

By Dr. A. L. E. CROUTER, of Pennsylvania.

In the training of deaf children all grades and classes are presented for instruction—the born deaf, the semideaf, the semimute, the richly endowed, the average mind, and the dull and backward child. I know of no school for deaf children where this is not the case, nor do I know of any worthy of the name in which selections of the brighter and more capable cases are made for purposes of instruction to the exclusion of others less gifted. I am aware the statement is frequently made by some who should be better informed, that under oral methods of training the former alone are benefited while the latter are shamefully and purposely neglected, or sent to other schools for instruction. It will be the purpose of this paper to refute such views and to set forth as clearly as may be, and I hope in a conservative way, the possibilities of educating all classes of deaf children by oral methods. It will not be our purpose to criticize other methods of instruction. We freely concede that great good has resulted and will continue to result to the deaf from the honest and sincere application of methods that are not oral, and heartily rejoice in their success.

We live in an age which is sentimental to the verge of hysteria. On every side, in every line of work, we see people obsessed by some one idea, harmless perhaps in itself, but dangerous in practice and a menace to the body politic when it becomes a fad—a monomania.

Some one wisely observes that we think too much about our bodily ailments, and immediately the hysterical extremists proceed to discard physicians and allows human beings to die like brutes without scientific treatment. Some one else discovers that fresh air is wholesome and forthwith appears a horde of followers ready to discard the decencies and amenities of life in their zeal to return to nature.

In no field of human endeavor is lack of sanity more dangerous than in education, and in no department of education is there greater danger from sentimentalism than in the education of what are termed the defective classes.



It is this sentimentalism in the education of the blind that fills our streets with blind beggars; and sentimental objections to the segregation of the feeble-minded have allowed their numbers to increase until their offspring fill our prisons and almshouses and their care is become a serious tax upon the self-supporting citizen.

With these warnings on every side, it behooves us teachers of the deaf to look carefully to our ways and to see, if possible, to what extent we have erred through similar weakness. I believe a dispassionate study of the whole field of deaf-mute education will force any honest, sane man to admit that most of our mistakes and differences have come from blindly following sentimental ideas and sentimental leaders; for where there is a difference there must be a mistake on one side or the other; both parties in an argument may be honest, but it is rare that both are right.

Most of us here know how much harm has been done by the sentimental oral teacher who preaches the doctrine that signs are wicked. Those of us who know anything about signs would find it hard to believe such hysteria possible if we had not, alas, heard with our own ears. But the oralist's sentimentality is surely equaled by the manualist's who assures us that, far from being an evil, signs are the natural God-given and peculiar possession of the deaf, and that whoever advises them to prefer any other means of expression is actually flying in the face of Providence. Even a superficial study of ethnology and physiological psychology shows us that God has given signs to the hearing no less than to the deaf. It is only because his hearing makes him more precocious that the normal child is able, sooner than his deaf brother, to discard signs. Between the ages of 1 and 2 years the hearing child is more proficient than the deaf child in the use of signs, owing to his more advanced mental development. Our patience is tried, on the one hand, by the ardent but ignorant oralist, who thinks you need only teach a child to articulate to make him ready to take his place for good and all among his hearing brothers, and, on the other hand, by the equally ignorant manualist, who asserts that the deaf can never be happy or wise without signs, and a plenty of them. Sensible people know that neither articulation nor the sign language is a panacea for deafness.

Anyone who has studied carefully the results attained under the various methods and combinations of methods in our American schools knows that failure is common to all, if success is not. The two indispensable requirements for success are an intelligent teacher and a pupil with a mind capable of development. Under these conditions success is assured with any method or no method. But the intelligent teacher can accomplish vastly more if, instead of laboriously hewing his own path, he carefully studies the methods of his predecessors and follows in the footsteps of those who have already blazed the way and won success.

In discussing the possibilities of the oral method of teaching the deaf, in attempting to tell this audience of teachers why, after 44 years' experience with both, I believe that the oral method affords greater educational possibilities than the manual method. I find it necessary, first of all, to carefully define what I mean by the oral method, a term which has, I am afraid, almost as indefinite a meaning in most minds as the equally enigmatical expression, "Combined system." A teacher may rigorously and vociferously exclude signs and spelling from his schoolroom and give great emphasis to the acquisition of articulation and lip reading and not be an oral teacher in the true sense. The essence of the oral method is that the deaf child should receive his language impressions through speech; that he should get his first conception of language as a vital thing from the expressive face of the teacher, not by translation through signs, not through writing, but as nearly as possible as the hearing child does.

We must always remember that language existed long before it was written, and if we are to follow nature, the one infallible guide in methods of teaching, we must teach the deaf child to think in language first, then to speak, and, lastly, to write. Mother nature is, without doubt, our best language teacher, and we can hardly hope to improve upon her methods. It is only by studying the development of language in the normal child that we can hope to find the solution of our problems. The normal child first learns to understand language, then responds to it in signs and gestures, and lastly imitates it. The mother of the normal child and the oral teacher of the deaf child should follow the same order of teaching. The mother first teaches her child to express verb ideas in signs, as "Shake by-by," and the baby waves his hand; "Pat-a-cake," and the baby claps his hands; "So big," and up go the little arms as far as he can

reach. How similar is the "run," "jump," "fall," "stand up," "sit down," etc., of the teacher of a beginning oral class. The mother and the teacher achieve the same object—the registry in the mind of the child of a language impression. That impression induces a reflex action or sign from the undeveloped mind; from the more mature mind the response comes in speech. A mind incapable of the complex processes which result in speech is obviously far below one thus developed.

The deaf man who can not speak is not of course in the mental condition of the infant who can not yet speak. Portions of his brain reach an advanced stage of development through the use of ideographic language, but this is, at best, a one-sided development, the motor areas of the brain used in speech remaining in a dormant condition and becoming finally atrophied, as was shown to be the case with Laura Bridgman when a post-mortem examination was made of her brain. While it is matter for regret that up to this time there has been no comparative study of the condition of the brain of the born deaf, orally and manually taught, it is obvious that there is quite as marked a difference between them as between the orally taught and the semimute. The semimute has a practically normal brain, the auditory areas having been developed naturally up to the time of his deafness. The orally taught deaf pupil has a brain as well developed as the normal child's except in the auditory area, while the manually taught deaf have not only the auditory area undeveloped, but also the portions of the motor area used in speech. Careful examination will show, we believe, the natural result of these differences in their relative educational attainments.

The semimute excels his born-deaf brother because of the intellectual development he has gained through the acquisition of natural speech, and yet how frequently, I say it with regret, we find this class attempting to deprive their less fortunate brothers of the instruction by which they themselves have profited so much. From no class does opposition to speech methods come with such poor grace as from the semimute whose proficiency, even in signs, is due in large measure to the mental advantage which speech has given them.

Baldwin says of the development of language that "the way of getting to speak by imitation is itself perhaps the profoundest pedagogical influence in the child's mental history." It is for the sake of the development that can only be gained in this way that the intelligent teacher chooses the oral method, not for the sake of speech per se.

The success of oral methods should not be measured by proficiency in articulation alone, any more than the intelligence of a hearing person should be judged by the quality of his voice. If the speech of an orally taught deaf person is absolutely unintelligible; if the attempt to teach him to speak were an absolute failure, which it rarely is, he would still be on a par with one manually taught in his ability to express himself, with the added advantage of having a brain better developed by the mere effort of learning articulation.

The hearing child passes quickly through the stage in which he expresses himself in signs, his ears storing his mind almost unconsciously with speech impressions which he learns with equal unconsciousness to imitate. Why does the normal child pass so successfully through this stage to a higher one? Simply because his ears are filled with English. Can anyone believe that the normal child would stop using signs at 2 or 3 years of age if all the world about him continued to address him in that language. We have conclusive proof that he would not in those not infrequent cases of hearing children in deaf-mute families who remain practically mute until they are associated with hearing and speaking people. The fact is, if the deaf child's mind could be fed with English through the eye as assiduously as the hearing child's, signs would soon cease to be his natural mode of expression. The expert oral teacher guides his pupils so skillfully to use their eyes as normal children use their ears that they gain the power of lip reading and speech in the same unconscious way. One by one their gestures give place to words, and they soon find themselves in possession of an equally natural and far better means of communication. If I wanted to learn to think and speak in French in the shortest possible time, everyone knows I should associate myself with French people who used no English. Similarly, if the deaf child is to use English, he must be surrounded by English and nothing but English. He will never become a master of English while he continues to think in signs.

It is obvious, then, that the corner stone of the oral method is lip reading, not articulation. The fundamental principle is that all language, all ideas should be given to the deaf child through speech.

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But, you say, it is impossible to give a beginning pupil language and ideas without signs—a fact which is quite as true of a hearing child as of a deaf child. The mother leads her child to obey the command he does not yet understand by gestures and teaches him language by action work precisely as the oral teacher of the deaf does, though the mother's work is of course unsystematic and almost unconscious.

No hearing child continues the use of signs beyond the stage of infancy, save those unfortunates whom we see using them at all ages in institutions for the feeble-minded. The teacher's use of signs should stop when the mother's does—at the point where the growth of the child's vocabulary renders it possible to explain language by language. From that point on the education of the deaf child proceeds along lines similar to those laid down for his normal brother, but it is a fatal mistake to suppose that he can, until a very advanced stage, dispense with the services of the expert teacher in the acquisition of both written and spoken forms of language. The eye is at best a poor substitute for the ear in the acquisition of language, and unless his time is most wisely economized the deaf child reaches maturity before he has mastered his great task of acquiring a mother tongue.

I have said lip reading is the corner stone of the true oral method, because it affords the deaf child the nearest possible approach to the method by which the normal child receives language, and insures for him therefore the most nearly normal mental growth. It is of secondary importance whether he express his ideas in speech, in writing, or in spelling; all three are English, although it is unquestionably wiser that pupils should employ speech among themselves, as well as in the classroom, thus improving every opportunity for the practice of lip reading.

It will be seen from the foregoing that the class of pupils usually thought to be unfit for oral methods of teaching are the very ones who need it most. Pupils suffering from vocal malformation and paralysis receive language as readily by this method as those who excel in articulation, and for those of retarded mental development it affords the only means of making language vital. These backward pupils, curiously enough, are often more proficient in articulation than in anything else, affording another striking example of the fact that it is far easier to talk than to say something.

In the development of the oral scheme of instruction the foundations must be carefully laid, and as speech and lip reading are to constitute the chief means of communication between teacher and pupil they call for careful, skillful development during the first years of the child's training; indeed as potent factors in the child's advancement they must be guarded and cultivated throughout the entire period of his school life. The work must not be haphazard or spasmodic, but well directed and scientific. There must be no misgiving, no wavering, or lack of faith on the part of the teacher. With her, if she would succeed, there must be no surrender, no resort to writing, nor finger spelling, nor signing, but the constant exercise of that firmness and resolution in her work that always command success. I have witnessed the complete success of such efforts with all classes of pupils so often that I am fully persuaded that the acquisition of intelligible speech and good practical, not to say expert, lip reading, are well within the powers of our average pupils. I have conversed with pupils fully 50 feet away in a very satisfactory manner and upon a variety of topics. I have conducted chapel service times without number, speaking to 150 to 180 pupils at a time on moral and religious subjects, with ample proof that I was intelligently understood by the majority of my audience. Indeed, from frequent experiences of this character, I am led to believe that with proper training and under favorable conditions the future will witness results of this nature little dreamed of at this time.

In articulation, as in language teaching, the wise oral teacher follows mother nature's lead and learns to teach the deaf by studying the manner in which the normal child acquires speech. Before the deaf child uses spoken language the function of speech should be developed by following as nearly as possible the steps of its development in the hearing child. During the first months of his life the normal infant is constantly drilling himself in articulation by the unending repetition of elementary sounds and short syllables. Next follows what the psychologists call the "jabbering" stage—the stage which so many of our semideaf pupils have reached but been unable to pass before entering school. The skillful articulation teacher leads his pupils through these earlier stages of development slowly or rapidly, according to their mental requirements. The average class gains in three or four months a facility in articulation which

enables them to pronounce almost any word. The vocabulary of the class is to be measured not by their ability to articulate, but solely by their power of grasping language. It is a striking proof of the advantage gained by presenting language through speech and lip reading that oral classes make as much progress in language during their first years in school as was formerly made under manual methods, notwithstanding the time spent on articulation drill.

But to what extent, you ask, are such methods successful with average deaf children? After an experience of a good many years, covering all phases of the work, I am convinced that there are few deaf children—not more than 2 or 3 per cent—of average capacity who are not able, under careful, skillful training, to acquire sufficient speech and lip reading for all classroom work and for general purposes of communication outside the classroom. Indeed, I have come to the conclusion, after a careful observation of results, that a deaf child that can not thus be instructed can not be instructed at all. There may be a few cases who by reason of physical defect in their vocal and visual organs will be found incapable of acquiring intelligible speech and unable to learn to read the lips, but the number will be found to be very small.

It is rare that cases of absolute failure arise among the born deaf. On the contrary, we usually find among them a very large number of cases of highly satisfactory development. In every class, from the lowest to the highest grade, in the school with which I have the pleasure to be connected will be found born-deaf children and children made deaf at so early an age—2 years and under—as to be practically born deaf holding their own in every way with semimutes and pupils made deaf at a later age. Any candid observer could not fail to be impressed with this fact on a visit to the school.

Of the semimutes, children deaf at 3 and over, and the semideaf, constituting the larger portion of the pupils, it would be an injustice to say that any of them possessed of good mentality and enjoying good health are pronounced failures in these respects. In other words, I feel I am quite within the bounds of conservative statement when I say that of the adventitious deaf (pupils deaf at from 2 to 4 years) the semideaf and the semimutes, constituting fully 66 per cent of the school attendance, there are almost no cases of absolute failure to acquire a good, intelligible command of speech and lip reading; while of the others, the born deaf and those made deaf at 2 and under, fully 34 per cent in all, instances of complete failure are very rare—not more than two or three in a hundred, as already stated.

And of these cases of comparative failure it must be said that the speech and lip reading which they have acquired, unintelligible and useless as it may seem to the stranger and casual visitor, are readily understood by members of their families and by their intimate friends. It is poor speech indeed that a mother will not understand. In my experience I have met instances of home training wherein the speech, utterly unintelligible, a mere jargon of words to the average or even expert listener, was readily and easily comprehended by the mother and various members of the family. The speech of young hearing children, often a mere babble of sounds, is readily interpreted by the various members of the household. We must not, therefore, as teachers, be too critical or too exacting in the standards of speech we set up for our deaf children. It should be as clear and as intelligible as possible, but we should never look for elocutionary or oratorical effects. Intelligible English is fully within the powers of the great majority of deaf children, and intelligible English should always be insisted on. Should there be failure, depend upon it the fault does not lie with the child or the method, but with the application of the method. There has been bad, inefficient, unskillful work somewhere.

But to attain these possible results there are certain conditions, always at command in our American schools, that are absolutely essential. I refer to the employment of highly trained teachers, to the maintenance of small classes, and to the introduction of a very careful system of grading. The teachers can not be too well selected nor too highly trained; the classes can not be too small; the grading can not be too rigid. On these important essentials I can not do better at this time than to quote, in part, from an address delivered before the American association at its eighth summer meeting, two years ago, in Chicago:

"It will hardly be disputed that trained teaching is an essential condition to the best results in teaching a deaf child to speak. This is essentially true of beginning work, where, if at any point in the course, there can not be too much skill or too great experience. The practice, too commonly observed in some of our schools, of placing young, untried, and sometimes untrained

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teachers in charge of beginning speech work can not be too severely condemned. This is the place of danger, of trial, and of honor, and only long-tried, well-trained, experienced teachers should be placed in charge. No hit-or-miss work will do; no go-as-you-please methods will answer. Highly trained teachers, of ripe experience, pursuing scientific methods, must be employed if the best possible results are to be attained.

"Small classes are also an essential factor in determining results in speech and lip reading. In general, our classes are too large. The teacher of speech, however experienced and well trained, should never be required to teach more than six or eight pupils. The task is too great for the best results. The best speech and the best lip reading are always to be found in small classes taught by good teachers. Let the home be our guide in this matter. There the young child, blessed with hearing, too, has two, three, or more teachers constantly guiding and directing him in the acquisition of speech—no mean task even for the hearing child—and yet we take 6, 8, 10, yes, I am told in some schools, even 12, deaf children, and place them under one teacher and expect them to learn to speak and read the lips in less time than the hearing child usually requires. Could there be any greater folly? Good speech and good lip reading are quite possible of attainment by the average deaf child, but he should certainly have every possible advantage, every possible aid in accomplishing the task.

"With the small class comes careful, rigid grading. This I regard as a third essential in the attainment of the best results in the teaching of speech. A teacher, even the most expert, should never be required to care for more than one grade of pupils in her class. The effort is too perplexing to her, and the results too disastrous to her pupils. The plan of conducting ungraded classes, too often pursued from force of circumstances perhaps, is most vicious. It discourages the teacher, it retards the progress of the pupils, and frequently renders even fair results unattainable. Small classes and good grading undoubtedly call for the employment of a greater number of teachers and therefore entail greater expense, but experience shows that the public always stands ready to meet every reasonable demand in the care and training of deaf children."

In the prosecution of formal language work oral methods do not vary very greatly in form or in matter from manual methods, excepting in the use of sign interpretations, which, of course, have no place or part in the exercises. Reading is introduced at an early period. Books, newspapers, magazines, and illustrated papers are in constant use by the pupils. Action work, column work, letter writing, story writing, picture writing, descriptive writing, and formal work in composition constantly engage the time and attention of both teachers and pupils, and with results which, in my experience as an old sign-language teacher, are greatly superior. They are superior in that that language used is clearer, less strained, and more idiomatic. There is less inclination to weak repetition and mere verbosity, verbal rubbish, and less tendency to what is familiarly called deaf-mutism. I say this unreservedly after years of experience with sign-language methods. The reasons for such results are not far to find; there is no sign interpretation, there is no presentation of thought through the use of involved sign-language forms; there is constant use of English forms, and English forms alone, and as a natural consequence the pupils acquire a command of simple, free English too often unusual under sign-language methods.

Another point in this connection which I think worthy of emphasizing is the early and permanent acquisition of the habit of reading on the part of pupils orally taught. This is an important feature of oral work and one that should not be lost sight of. The pupils become great readers; the habit becomes a passion with them. Books and magazines become their constant companions, with the result that they acquire an acquaintance with printed forms of expression and with higher forms of language and literature that is as praiseworthy as it is unusual. The habit is by no means confined to the semimutes and to the semideaf; it is as common among the deaf born as with any other class of pupils.

What I have said regarding the possibilities of language teaching under oral methods applies with equal, if not greater, force in number teaching. The elementary stages, taken up orally as a sort of number play, never fail to excite the interest of the pupil, developing unconsciously his powers of speech and lip reading, and ever adding to his knowledge of the use and powers of numbers. From the first and easier stages to more difficult work the step is



easily taken, and the pupil, whether born deaf, semideaf, or semimute, is soon found mastering with cheerful interest the dry study of numbers, a subject that often appals deaf children. The study of numbers, as is sometimes stated, presents no unusual, no insurmountable obstacles to deaf children orally taught; on the contrary, the subject is as readily and as easily mastered, is found just as interesting and attractive and helpful as the same study when pursued under differing methods. The methods pursued, barring the use of speech and lip reading instead of signs and the manual alphabet for purposes of communication and instruction, are practically the same as under manual methods.

The study of numbers is ever the same, whether pursued orally or by means of signs. Mathematics recognize no special media of thought communication. One method of communication may prove more expeditious, more rational than another, but the number thought ever remains the same. Three and six are nine whether spoken or presented graphically in writing or on the fingers. The former method of presentation will, however, always possess the advantage of being more easily and readily understood by hearing people.

From ordinary number work the pupil passes with equal interest and zeal to higher arithmetic and to the study of algebra and geometry. An examination of the course of study pursued in oral schools will, I am quite sure, convince the most skeptical that in point of mathematical comprehensiveness it is quite as exacting as are similar courses in schools pursuing silent methods of instruction.

Other branches of study are taken up with equal facility in oral schools and successfully pursued. History, geography, grammar, physics, civics, literature, etc., in turn readily yield to oral methods, ever presenting admirable fields for the practice of speech and lip reading, as well as for the acquisition of useful knowledge. In fact, time and opportunity being given, there is no subject of study that may not be successfully presented by the trained oral teacher, whether in philosophy, science, art, or literature. To doubt this is to doubt the well-attested successful collegiate careers of large numbers of orally taught deaf men and women.

But it is sometimes stated that there is an entire absence of moral and religious training in schools orally conducted. I mention this simply to refute it; a moment's consideration should convince any thoughtful mind of the absurdity of the statement. Speech is no hindrance to morality or the practice of religion. In all oral schools that I have knowledge of constant attention is given to both these subjects, and orally taught men and women stand just as high in the community as any other class of deaf people. Their honesty, their integrity, their truthfulness, their industry, their sobriety, and their domestic virtues and their piety are of as high a character as are those of any other class of people, hearing or deaf. I make no exception.

In oral schools chapel services and Sunday-school work are regularly conducted, and always by and through speech and lip reading. At our own school at Mount Airy, those in charge have no difficulty in making themselves understood, and I doubt not the same may be said of similar schools throughout the country. On such occasions and for such purposes speech is a powerful agent for good when exercised by the skillful teacher. Of this I have had abundant proof.

But, after all, are the orally taught deaf really happy? They may acquire speech and lip reading, they may become proficient in the use of language and numbers, their knowledge of history, geography, literature, composition, science, etc., may be very considerable indeed, but do speech and lip reading and knowledge gained through speech and lip reading really make deaf people happy? Are you prepared to believe that boys and girls who hilariously engage in all sorts of amusements—dancing, ball playing, tennis playing, croquet playing, hockey playing—who shout with laughter and joy as games are won or lost, whose merry faces and twinkling eyes tell of the glad some hearts within, do you believe that such boys and girls are happy? If you do, you will of necessity, but, I trust, not against your wills, be forced to believe, as you pass through the halls of oral schools and look out upon their grounds, filled with rollicking, romping boys and girls, that deaf children orally taught in oral schools lead happy and joyous lives.

Dr. GALLAUDET. I will ask Dr. Crouter to take the chair and preside over this session of the convention.

Dr. CROUTER. My fellow teachers: It is a great pleasure to be with you. I am a teacher. I was asked yesterday why I came to this

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convention. My reply was and is that I am a teacher of the deaf and have been so for over 40 years, and that to me is sufficient answer.

I have been particularly pleased and gratified with the harmonious, cordial, and friendly spirit that has pervaded this convention. I know and believe that teachers of the deaf are broad enough and liberal enough, whatever method of instruction may engage their attention, to meet together and consider methods that may promote the happiness and well-being of deaf children. We do not come together to dispute in any narrow-minded spirit, but to engage in the serious consideration of such matters as will tend to the uplifting and upbuilding of real character in the deaf. I can grasp the hand of a man or woman engaged in teaching with methods different from my own and believe in his sincerity. My methods may differ from his, but that doesn't separate me from him. He may try to drive me out of these meetings, but he will have trouble in getting rid of me.

The paper that has just been read will be discussed by Mr. E. A. Gruver, of New York.

Mr. GRUVER. Mr. Chairman and fellow teachers, I have prepared a brief statement of results accomplished in schools with which I have been associated and of observations and experiences in two great cities where many deaf children have been educated by the various methods. I present this statement not so much in the nature of a discussion of Dr. Crouter's excellent paper, the sentiments of which I wholly accept and indorse, but rather as a supplement thereto, in the hope that it may assist in making more clear some disputed points in oral instruction.

Mr. Gruver's paper was as follows:

The oral education of deaf children in this country is no longer an experiment. It has proved its right to exist and to be supported, and must, therefore, be accorded the consideration its position and importance demand.

In even so brief a discussion of this subject, a definition of terms is necessary in order that there may be no misunderstanding.

What is the oral method? It is a plan of education for deaf children having as its basic aim mental development through speech, speech reading, and writing to the entire exclusion of signs and the manual alphabet as a means of instruction. When we say "speech" we do not mean "articulation teaching" for a designated period of time each day, but the use of speech in instruction and communication. We do not advocate "lip reading" when easy, and writing when more convenient than either speech or lip reading, but the complete blending of these three component elements into a scientific, pedagogical, and rational method of instruction, which, when properly applied, produces a broad mental development and yields a true education.

This commingling of speech, speech reading, and writing in the education of deaf children, coupled with influences which make for culture and an environment which is conducive to contentment and happiness, operated under the direction of a sympathetic and competent principal or superintendent, applied by well-trained and experienced teachers, constitute a method of instruction for deaf children which has produced results in mental development equal to any method or combination of methods and which, when tested, compare favorably with and most nearly approximate those of normal children.

More than one-half of the deaf children in American schools to-day are under such instruction, and nearly three-fourths of all the deaf children in our schools are taught to speak and to read from the lips.

Since speech teaching is an essential part of the oral method, it is but reasonable to assume that many deaf children taught speech are also taught orally in other branches. That more are being so educated each year is evidenced by the larger number of oral schools in America and the increasing number of pupils in these schools, and also by the numerous oral classes in our combined-system schools.

No method of education was ever devised which gives to all deaf children coming under its influence the same degree and kind of mental development, nor do we claim this for oral methods. No method of education should be expected to do the impossible—e. g., educate those not capable of receiving instruction—nor should we expect this of oral methods.

We do hold, however, that to those deaf children endowed by the Creator with sufficient mental ability to think and to reason, be it ever so little, the benefits of instruction by correct oral methods are as great and the results as satisfactory as by any other method, and, in addition, that the children are given better chances of understanding and of being understood when communicating with those not deaf, and consequently that their development is as near natural as possible. In making this assertion we do not lose sight of the so-called "oral failures," nor do we hold up to your view the accomplishments of a few specially bright pupils, instructed under unusually favorable circumstances.

We do not claim to develop all minds alike or to the same degree, nor do we use exactly the same process with each child, as is sometimes charged by those who do not favor oral methods. Each child has a place under the oral method, and each method has its failures. It is certainly not fair to judge any method of instruction by its failures alone. The processes of mental development with the slow child go on in a similar manner to those with the bright child, and the results are in proportion to the child's ability and the teacher's ingenuity and skill. There is no grade of deaf child that needs rational and normal methods more than the irrational and the abnormal deaf child, and in this respect oral methods have not been found wanting.

Undue stress is not placed upon the special ability of some pupils to speak almost perfectly or to read the lips correctly under unusual conditions. We base our declaration for recognition upon the quality and quantity of mental development and the kind of educational and cultural results secured by the correct application of proper oral methods with the group, not the individual. It will be observed that we place great emphasis upon the environment of the school and the harmonious cooperation of the principal, the teachers, the pupils, and the officers of the household, for a loose organization in any school can not produce good results, it makes no difference what methods of instruction are employed. This may appear to some to be a very radical view, but there are successful educators of the deaf in this country to-day who long ago reached this conclusion, and staked their professional reputations upon its soundness as an educational principle, upon the possibility of its accomplishment, and upon the chances of its success.

There are some in this audience who feel the force of this conviction and recognize the soundness of this doctrine and are working out the problems to their satisfaction, others who believe it in theory but are not in a position to apply it in practice, and still others who consider such a theory exceedingly extreme, if not dangerous, and wholly impossible of fulfillment.

An illustration may serve, better than argument, to show the full significance of what has just been expressed.

Upon assuming the principalship of the Lexington Avenue school, in 1898, after a reorganization of the school was decided upon by the board of trustees, we were asked to readjust the oral methods of that school; to apply them to New York City conditions, and, if possible, to secure better educational results. Knowing that a broad mental development and a liberal education are possible to the deaf child through oral methods, and having seen excellent results by these methods in other schools, we set about to secure similar results in that school.

In the process, we never lost sight of the goal—mental development through speech, speech reading, and writing. We early demonstrated to our satisfaction that in the proper development of oral methods signs and finger spelling have no place, and when used with speech are antagonistic one to the other, and consequently when used together are warring elements. The pupils, therefore, were not allowed to use the manual alphabet and signs in the classroom, nor were the teachers. In the dining room, at study, and in the industrial classes the same rule applied. We tried to create an oral English atmosphere in and about the school. We did not succeed in getting at all times just what we wanted in that respect, for we were dealing with many foreign-born children and parents of humble antecedents from the east side of New York City, with whom spoken and written English can not be said to be strong points. We did succeed, however, in getting a quality of mental development and a degree of usable speech throughout the school in less than 10 years, which proved con-

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clusively to the board and to us that correct oral methods are sufficient in the general education of deaf children when properly applied, under harmonious conditions, with a wholesome environment and an oral English atmosphere.

We quote from the annual report of the Lexington Avenue school for the year 1908:

"The New York State educational department several years ago requested the institutions for the deaf of the State to try its course of study and syllabus for elementary schools, with a view to having the pupils take the fifth-grade examination as a basis upon which a systematic grading of the several schools could be made. We were doubtful of the practicability of such action, and fearful of the results upon the mental development of the pupils, if the syllabus were adhered to as presented by the department. In order to fully convince ourselves that the course of study of this institution covered practically the same ground in a different manner, and feeling that our course of study was better adapted to the education of the deaf than a course prepared for hearing children, we did not materially alter the course as used in this school, nor did we wholly adopt the elementary syllabus. We adjusted certain parts of our course to meet the requirements of the department's course, and then took the examination, with the following results:

"In June, 1907, 20 pupils took the fifth-grade examination, 9 pupils took the sixth grade, and 9 the seventh grade. In some cases the same pupils took the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades. All the papers, except those in history, were sent to Albany to be marked. Of the 20 pupils who took the fifth-grade examination 16 passed 75 per cent or more in arithmetic, 16 in geography, 15 in language, and 20 in spelling. There was no history examination in this grade. The oldest pupil was 18 years old, a semimute, deaf at 10 years of age, and was 5 years under instruction in the institution; the youngest was 12 years old, deaf at 5 years of age, and was 7 years under instruction. The longest period of instruction for any pupil was 11 years. This child was congenitally deaf. The shortest period for any was 3 years—a semimute. Of the 9 pupils who took the sixth grade, 9 passed 75 per cent or more in language, and 8 in arithmetic. The other examinations did not meet the requirements. Of the 9 pupils who took the seventh-grade examination, 4 passed in language, 8 in arithmetic, 7 in geography, 3 in nature study and agriculture, 3 in physiology, and 9 in spelling. This class was the highest grade in school; average age, 16 years; average time in school, 8 years. The class average in language (department's marks) was 74 per cent; in arithmetic 97½ per cent; in geography, 79½ per cent; in nature study and agriculture, 72½ per cent; in physiology, 67½ per cent; in spelling, 97½ per cent; and in history, 54 per cent. Owing to a misunderstanding in regard to the requirements in history, the papers were not sent to Albany. The percentage as given is the teacher's mark.

"The second examination was taken in March, 1908, when the grade questions of January, 1908, were used. The showing in this examination compared favorably with that of March, 1907. These papers were not sent to Albany.

"The third examination was taken in June, 1908, when, in addition to the regular fifth, sixth, and seventh grades, 9 pupils took the high-school examination in arithmetic and geography. All the papers were sent to the State education department to be marked. Twenty-eight pupils took the examination. The class averages (department marks) in the seventh grade were: English, 74½ per cent; arithmetic, 96½ per cent; geography, 78½ per cent; history, 82½ per cent; physiology, 74 per cent; spelling, 90 per cent. In the sixth grade: English, 76½ per cent; arithmetic, 80½ per cent; geography, 61½ per cent; spelling, 84 per cent. In the fifth grade (same class as took the sixth grade): Geography, 83 per cent; physiology, 80 per cent. In the fifth grade (another class): English, 68 per cent; arithmetic, 95 per cent; geography, 78 per cent; physiology, 66 per cent; spelling, 86 per cent. The class averages of the 9 pupils who took the arithmetic and geography of the high-school course were 85 per cent in each branch. It will be observed that the third examination compared very favorably with the first.

"These examinations are of little practical value except to show that some deaf children, if given sufficient time in school, can do what some normal children can do.

"In June the advanced class of 8 pupils was graduated.

"This class had taken three regular examinations of the State education department, embracing the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades, and, in addition, the arithmetic and geography of the high-school examination. Their graduation depended upon their ability to pass the seventh grade. One member of the class did not graduate, and was given a certificate of discharge. Some of these



pupils had been in the institution only a few years, while others had received their entire education here. The average age was 17 years; average time in school, 9 years."

These tests were not made to show the equality or superiority of methods, but for the one purpose of demonstrating to the New York State Education Department that the mental development of the pupils of the advanced grade in the Lexington Avenue school compared favorably with that of similar grades in the public schools of the State. It will be observed that these were not picked pupils any more than the advanced classes of any school constitute the special pupils, and that they were drawn largely from the foreign and often humble classes of the east side of New York City.

Are such results practical and usable? Just as much so as any educational results and just as flexible. The pupils upon leaving school take their proper places in the community and become interested in every phase of life open to the deaf. Protestant, Catholic, and Jew; oral, manual, and sign taught mingle freely in New York City. Oral education has not barred any of them from the pleasures of life, the successes of business, or the consolations of religion. They are a contented and happy group of deaf people, belonging to the same clubs and societies and attending the same places of worship as those educated by other methods. They have taken their places in society and have assumed its obligations and responsibilities, and in some instances the leadership. They have free intercourse with the world, and in their attitude toward things in general and themselves in particular exhibit a natural and normal bearing toward society.

We do not claim to have restored these deaf children to society; deafness makes that impossible, nor do we wish this to be so construed, but our aims were to approximate it as nearly as possible, for a natural and normal bearing on the part of a deaf child toward those with whom it is constantly coming in contact constitutes a very important and practical part of its development.

Much has been said in recent years about the intellectual and social handicap placed upon the orally taught deaf by repressing the use of signs while the pupils are under the institution's care. Our observations of orally taught deaf after they have left the institutions and our experience with them while in the institutions lead us to the conclusion that there is no immediate danger of the deaf losing anything, either in their ability or facility of easy and ready communication one with the other and from the platform, by a restricted use of signs while under the institution's care, nor of their social intercourse being stilted or made difficult by not allowing a free use of signs while in school.

We have found interchange of ideas just as easy and just as sure, the advantages of moral instruction just as helpful, and the consolations of religion just as real among the orally taught as among those taught by other methods. While in school the pupils use English, out of school English as far as may be possible, and when at home or among their friends they employ all means of communication with apparently equal facility.

This has been our experience and observation in two large oral schools in two great cities where large numbers of deaf people are congregated. The restriction of signs in these schools did not make the pupils incapable of understanding them after they left school or when attending a meeting of a religious or social character where signs were employed. The lack of the use of finger spelling in the institution does not necessarily make the deaf child incapable of using it out of school, in the home, on the street, or among friends if necessary, nor have these restrictions kept them from making an honest living. Because deaf children know how to sign and to spell does not necessarily give them the liberty to use them when, where, and how they please.

We always treated an undue use of signs by the pupils, both in and out of the classroom, as a breach of decorum akin to using French when English is being learned. It is in this respect that signs and finger spelling are restricted in oral schools and spoken and written language insisted upon. A correct and fluent use of English, spoken and written, makes a clear and lucid interpretation of signs more possible, and insures a more accurate translation and a clearer understanding.

Education is practical only to the extent that it trains the pupils to do things. One of the things they should be most able to do is to express themselves clearly; to formulate what thoughts they have acquired and to put them into shape that they may be assimilated by others. The first way to formulate thought is to understand one's own language, and the more fixed this language is the more faithfully the thought will be transmitted one to the other. The sign language, therefore, as a means to an end, in oral schools is not only



not employed but not necessary. It has no place in a manual alphabet school either, and its use is being restricted more and more in the combined system schools each year.

Where the English language, spoken and written, can be used there will be no restrictions upon the interchange of ideas among the deaf themselves or among the deaf and the hearing. This intercourse will be free, easy, and spontaneous because backed by intelligence and effective because made sure.

The pupils of the Lexington Avenue school, Jew, Catholic, and Protestant, attended their respective places of worship, were instructed in religious doctrines and were confirmed in their faiths in exactly the same manner as the pupils of the other schools for the deaf of New York City. We know that the sign language is a great convenience, but we also know that it is not necessary in school or out of it in promoting the mental and moral development of deaf children or in stimulating religious convictions. We do not mean to offer any objection to its use in that manner, if properly employed after the child has severed its connection with the school.

In view of what has been said, we believe that the method of instruction which employs the English language, spoken and written, to the exclusion of signs and finger spelling; which gives a broad mental development and a liberal education; which makes possible the most normal and natural intercourse between the deaf and the hearing, and which most nearly approximates the education of the hearing child, is the one commonly called the oral method, and that the possibilities of this method in the instruction of deaf children are limited only by the capabilities of the pupils, for where mental development is possible instruction by the oral method is practicable and satisfactory results are obtainable.

The paper of Mr. F. W. Booth was read, as follows:

#### DISCUSSION OF DR. CROUTER'S PAPER ON "THE POSSIBILITIES OF ORAL METHODS IN THE INSTRUCTION OF DEAF CHILDREN."

By Mr. F. W. Booth, School for the Deaf, Omaha, Nebr.

The question before us having been so thoroughly and ably covered by the paper to which we have listened, a discussion of it would seem almost supererogation, especially by one fully in accord with the argument and the conclusions reached. Yet there are points in the paper that may receive emphasis by a mere statement of agreement, hence I feel I may not better employ my time this morning than by noting a few of the points made that seem to me especially worthy of being thus emphasized.

The first of these points that I will take up lies in the statement that "The essence of the oral method is that the deaf child should receive its language impressions through speech, that he should get his first conception of language as a vital thing from the expressive face of the teacher, not by translation through signs, not through writing, but as nearly as possible as the hearing child does." And this point is reiterated in the statement that "the corner stone of the oral method is lip reading, not articulation." There are teachers who apparently do not believe this, or, at least, who in practice disregard it as a fundamental principle, for such teachers habitually use signs, or resort to writing or manual spelling as a substitute for speech. They do it, as they say, to save time, but, like the miser's saving of his gold, may it not be asked, To what good end is all such saving? It has been wittily and well said, "There is more time saved in a school for the deaf than anywhere else in the universe." It is, indeed, true, and it can not be repeated too often or emphasized too strongly, the corner stone of the oral method is lip reading, and until an oral school or a combined school comes to rest upon this corner stone, it can have no adequate foundation to sustain the school work to its end, still less to sustain the weight of the demand upon it in the after school life.

The next point in the paper that I would especially emphasize comes in the statement that "the success of oral methods should not be measured by proficiency in articulation alone." The mistaken point of view that makes articulation the chief aim of oral teaching will, in the nature of the case, make it the standard of judging of the success or failure of such teaching. It remains for us, then, to get away from this mistaken point of view to the end that we may do away with the employment of the false standard with all its attending results; and that we adopt in its place the point of view, which is the correct

one, that oral methods are primarily and essentially educational, for, certainly, unless oral methods be justified on educational grounds in the case of every school and of every pupil taught by them, they are not justified at all. Had I a deaf child I should wish him, first of all, to be educated in the largest sense, and knowing what I do as learned from varied experience, from observation, and from study, I should turn to an oral school to find those conditions where he should be given the best all-round education of which he might be capable, gaining, meanwhile, as a plus, all the speech and lip reading that can possibly be acquired under the favorable speech-teaching and speech-learning conditions that oral schools provide. That is my feeling to-day. I may be wiser in a year, or in five years from now, made so by a close study of conditions in the school of which I have just taken charge, and I may change my views; but, if so, I shall do so willingly and gladly, for I can wish, as we all in our hearts wish, only and always the better way—in the last analysis, the real, unquestioned good of the deaf child committed to our care.

Many will take issue with the statement in the paper that "the class of pupils usually thought to be unfit for oral methods of teaching are the very ones who need them most," for in most of our schools the practice is to give the advantage of oral instruction only to the brighter children, with the thought that the slower children profit more through employment of silent methods. But the logic of the argument, as well as this positive testimony derived from long and varied experience, raises the question if the practice is not altogether a mistaken one. The crucial test of a method is what it can do in the case of the dull child, for a bright child learns by any method, and in his case the method used is confused with other teaching forces and factors, and therefore has no conclusive demonstration. Certainly if in any school oral methods prove themselves superior in the educational results secured in the case of the slower children, that settles the whole question at issue, for success is positive testimony always, and is acceptable as such in any court of judgment as against the merely negative testimony of failure, no matter by whom such testimony may be offered.

And now comes as a corollary to the foregoing the statement, "It is a striking proof of the advantage gained by presenting language through speech and lip reading that oral classes make as much progress in language during their first year in school as was formerly made under manual methods, notwithstanding the time spent on articulation drill." What would we old-time manual teachers of 30 years ago have thought had we in those days of our skepticism heard such an assertion at a convention like this. But the very fact that this conclusion has been reached by a student of methods and an educator who was himself in his earlier professional life an unusually successful instructor by manual methods gives the pronouncement a peculiar significance and force, and for one I must acknowledge that any lingering shade of doubt that I may have had upon the question involved has been by it dissipated and removed.

Then the claim that oral methods lend themselves peculiarly to the development of the power and habit of reading in the born deaf is one that experience will, I believe, generally verify. And there is a reason for this superiority of oral over manual methods with relation to this development. This reason I believe to lie in the identities involved between lip reading and print reading. Lip reading and print reading involve the same sense organ, the eye, and likewise the same brain area or center; hence, learning and practicing lip reading give the mind attitude and the mind action that with but little additional training give also the power of print reading.

Passing over the points relating to the small percentage of deaf pupils—2 or 3—who may possibly for one reason or another better be excluded from oral instruction, and to the size of oral classes, that they should contain, for the very best results, not more than six or eight pupils, and the fact that all teachable deaf children are admitted without discrimination to present-day oral schools and oral instruction—to each and all of which points my own observation and experience give assent and confirmation—I come to the question of failure, a question that is and ever will be with us the Banquo's ghost at our every feast, rising up to trouble us. Anybody can fail, and many, too many, do fail in the prosecution of oral methods, as likewise in the prosecution of manual methods, and we have all seen pitiful failures by both. But, to quote the paper: "Should there be failure, depend upon it, the fault does not lie with the child or the method, but with the application of the method. There has been bad, inefficient, unskillful work somewhere."

Those are words of one who concededly speaks with the voice of an authority, and I believe they are true. Let us, then, take it home—failure does not lie in the child or the method, but in some of the essential conditions of the method's application. The best gun ever made may easily fail to hit the mark. It is the man behind the gun; more than that, the army and organization behind the man; and, finally, the State behind the army, that singly and all together must contribute to make for the complete efficiency of the gun in the accomplishment of its mission and purpose. So it is with our method. It is the teacher, resourceful, persevering, patient, skillful, behind the method; more than that, the school organization and administration, sympathetic, cooperative, full of inspiring faith and zeal, behind the teacher; and the State, generous in financial and moral support, behind the administration. These, again, singly and unitedly, must contribute to the making of any method, and particularly the oral method, effective to the limits of the possibilities that pertain to it and inhere in it. The teacher can accomplish but little with an unsympathetic superintendent and with noncooperation in the school organization, and the school and superintendent can likewise do little without very generous financial support from the State. Granted that the child and the method in themselves present no inherent insurmountable difficulties, but that the cause of any failure must be sought in the method's application, the problem before us is that much, and very greatly, simplified, and it remains only to study it and to secure its solution by so conditioning the method in the spirit and detail of its application and so environing the child in the atmosphere of speech and its practice that cases of failure where children are really educatable shall be impossible and therefore nonexistent.

Fit the method to the child by all means, but I should make the saying to mean something—that is to say, to make it to serve to differentiate sharply between goods schools and poor. I therefore offer this rendering: "Fit the method at its best to the child at his best; that done, then fit the child to the method." Regardless of the method, whether oral or manual, the child is fitted to it in any serious effort entered upon to educate him. He must be fitted to a method—some method—to fit him for life. And, at the best, it can be no easy-going, self-adjusting, self-operating method that can overcome the deafness handicap and fit our pupils for life among the hearing to the limit of the requirements and possibilities involved.

In these days of scientific management and of utilization of waste products, with the truly marvelous results obtained in many instances, we may wonder if in cases of unsatisfactory results in our work such results may not be due to our half-century-old ways of school administration and to the waste attending the nonutilization of teaching and learning opportunities as they arise and pass in the daily activities and life of the school. I would that a Frederick W. Taylor might rise up and take our problem in hand, with the view to securing larger results, possibly very much larger results, as return for the effort and the wealth being expended in our schools. Awaiting the arrival of the man and the development of his system of economizing effort and utilizing waste to the best and largest results possible, I would suggest to him that he will find large waste, indicating the way to a large economy and a corresponding increase in results, in the fact that to too large a degree we do not in our schools practice what we teach; that we do not practice outside the schoolroom what we teach within its limits.

I am myself firmly convinced that the great need to the securing of the best results in the promotion of oral methods is the large extension of their practice in the school life. I believe that there is nothing that will pay larger dividends in results than practice, except it be more practice. And I do not say this for rhetorical effect, for I mean that while practice is good, more practice is better. In a word, by doubling the practice or use of speech for all purposes, you more than double the results secured. It may be conceived that practice increased in arithmetical ratio gives increase in results in geometrical ratio; thus, doubling practice gives us results in fourfold measure; trebling practice likewise results in ninefold measure. At any rate, can we account for the great difference in schools in the observed results secured except upon some such hypothesis as to the great fruitfulness, the rapidly cumulative potency of every plus of practice instituted, whether in the schoolroom teaching or in the outside-the-schoolroom life? The great difference in schools is a fact, but I believe this great difference could be done away with and all schools would be brought practically to a common level with the best, did but practice of speech and speech reading obtain in equal measure in them all. The principle in added

practice is that of the clenching of nails, speech and lip-reading nails driven—for the most part well driven—in limited practice, but that loosen and lose out unless double, treble practice clenches them and makes them perpetually secure.

Thomas A. Edison has said that it has been the rule of his life to look around and find the hardest thing to do, and then do it. Have we not Thomas A. Edisons in plenty in our own field of effort, and may we not attribute to their intrepid spirit, to their daring and doing, the triumphs that we all know of in giving speech and education to born deaf children—triumphs that equal, if they do not surpass, those of the wizard of Menlo Park in the realm of material things? May this spirit that dares, and because it dares accomplishes, be extended until it possesses every superintendent and teacher in the land, and until to every deaf child coming to our schools is given that which is his right—speech and education to the extreme limit of the possibilities involved.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. I would like to question a statement in Mr. Booth's paper—that is, about lip reading and print reading being practically the same. That is new to me. I would like to give just one experience of my own in connection with that. We have in one of the classes in our college three young men from the Mount Airy school, trained orally, trained in the same class, and by the same teachers evidently. The young man who reads the most print is the poorest lip reader by far. Dr. Crouter might answer that.

Dr. CROUTER. Notwithstanding the practice and discipline he got in his efforts at reading the lips involved the same mental attitude and action that served him when he came to print reading. In both instances he read, or was taught to read, by sound, action, or motion. The boy's failure was probably owing to his having learned to read by hearing rather than by sight. There is a mental development in the practice of lip reading that contributes to the power of print reading.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Isn't the same true of the reading of language from the hand? Doesn't that stimulate the same brain center?

Dr. CROUTER. Essentially in the same manner.

Mr. GOODWIN. We have the two terms "speech reading" and "lip reading." Isn't "speech reading" the more comprehensive and consequently the more desirable?

Dr. CROUTER. I will ask Miss Yale to answer that.

Miss YALE. "Speech reading" seems to be the more preferable term.

Dr. CROUTER. We are to hear from Mr. Johnson, of Indiana.

Mr. R. O. JOHNSON. Mr. Chairman, I had the pleasure of reading Dr. Crouter's paper in advance, and I knew that with what Mr. Gruver and Mr. Booth would say that the question would be fully and completely covered; and knowing we started late this morning and are now nearly an hour behind the program I shall have very little to say. I shall refer only to two points, to two shadows that frequently have been cast upon oral work because of alleged assertions by advocates of the oral method. The first is that the success of oral work depends solely upon the intelligibility of the speech acquired. I have never believed that and hope no one else does. This is a shadow that has largely been dispelled this morning by Dr. Crouter, who clearly states that the success of oral teaching must not be measured solely by the intelligibility of the speech acquired. The second shadow is that the advocates of the method claim that the oral method "reclaims to society"—that is, to hearing society—any child educated along oral lines. I have never believed that and hope no one else does. And I am glad to see that shadow largely



dispelled by Mr. Gruver, who disavows any such thought. We are certainly getting together. That is all I have to say. I thank you.

At this point of the session Dr. Fay asked for and was granted permission to call attention to the literature gotten out by the commercial organizations of Duluth, and which had been distributed through the hall, and also to read a letter from Mr. Howard, of Duluth.

Dr. FAY. I just wish to say that last week I had the pleasure of staying three days in Duluth, and they were days of pleasure and profit. That wonderful city rises for 26 miles in terraces from the lake, and with its great steel plant, lumber mills, and other manufacturing, its beautiful parks, boulevards, and residences it offers a combination of pleasures that make a trip to that city well worth the time and expense of all who can possibly take it.

The following is the letter from Mr. Howard:

*Mr. President, Ladies, and Gentlemen:*

You surely have not forgotten Mr. Connor's remarks on the South, made on the opening night. They left me in a dazed condition, wondering why the good Lord made the rest of the world.

It occurs to me that He must have made the rest of the world that the enterprise of the men of the South might have room for expansion.

In enumerating the many things accomplished by the men of the South, Mr. Connor omitted to mention that Proctor Knott, a Kentuckian, made Duluth famous.

Proctor Knott's Duluth speech was remarkable in that it was a prophecy. To-day, in the great volume of her commerce, in her commanding commercial position, she exceeds the wildest flights of fanciful predictions of her greatness made by Proctor Knott.

In Proctor Knott's speech he speaks of Duluth as inhabited by "nature's choicest songsters," which may as yet be hardly true. It is my purpose to take back to Duluth with me as large a delegation from this convention as is possible. I am sure these delegates will be so pleased with Duluth that they will fill the streets of the city with both oral and pantomimic songs.

I understand there are some 33 who have expressed their intentions of making the Duluth trip. Dr. Dobyns informs me that the boat it was expected the delegates would take from Chicago is fully booked. It will be necessary to go by train. Dr. Dobyns has turned the arrangement of this over to me. If there are enough in the party we will get a special sleeper and leave here at 5.25 Thursday afternoon and reach Duluth at 8.25 next morning.

You can, in a measure, see what Duluth is like by looking at the pictures on the wall in the rear of the hall. You can see for yourselves that in 1870 Duluth was about 1 foot long. In 1900 it was 5 feet long, and in 1910 it was 9 feet long. I have books which I wish each of you to take. These books will give you an idea of the city. Your presence in Duluth is earnestly desired, and we will endeavor to give you what, in the polite vernacular of the breezy West, is known as a "rip-roaring good time."

All who contemplate joining the Duluth party will please see me as soon as possible. I wish to make transportation arrangements at once.

#### CONFERENCE ON LIP READING AS A MEANS OF COMMUNICATION IN TEACHING.

Directed by Mr. T. V. ARCHER, North Carolina.

1. Is there a psychological basis for speech reading? If so, what is it?
2. What is the comparative value of speech reading as a means of mental development?
3. How does speech reading compare with manual spelling as a means of communication?
4. Does not the emphasis naturally used in a spoken sentence make a deeper impression upon the mind of the pupil than the same sentence would make if written or spelled on the fingers?



5. To what extent is it advisable to demand verbatim speech reading?
6. Are not pupils who are required to depend upon speech reading more apt to think in English than those who depend upon other methods of communication?
7. Has it been your experience that pupils enjoy stories, character sketches, etc., given through speech reading more than the same story read from the printed page?
8. Can a good discipline be maintained in a class where all communication is through speech reading?
9. Can moral instruction be imparted as well through speech reading as by other means?

Mr. ARCHER. I am going to cut out all preliminary remarks and proceed at once to the questions you have in your hands. I request you to ask any of the questions printed, or any other questions bearing on the subject, agreeing to answer them if I can—and I learned long ago to say "I don't know."

Question 1. Is there a psychological basis for speech reading? If so, what is it?

The answer to that question I have written. I shall simply read what in my judgment is the answer. First, to answer categorically, I should say, yes. The hearing child learns speech through the audible imitation of audible speech. The power to speak having been acquired, reading and writing are added. The pupil at first finds himself under the necessity of reading aloud because thus far the sound perceptions with which his thinking has been associated can be reproduced only by sound word images, but gradually optical centers in the brain are developed and he learns to read inaudibly, yet pronouncing to himself each word. Finally, seeing the word is sufficient.

In reading from the lips the child must reproduce mentally the speech sensations in addition to the optic word images, and only after many repetitions will he be able to connect the visual idea with the corresponding speech sensations. But after a time there is established a connection between thinking, reading from the lips, and speaking, corresponding to that of thinking, hearing, and speaking in the normal child. Summed up, we may answer the question in the words of another: "Develop speech in a deaf child in such a way that his thinking may be, as soon as possible, based upon his speech sensations," and there you have the psychological basis for instruction through speech reading.

Another point. For ages, so far as we know, ever since the creation of man, speech has been the normal and universal method of communication. Is it not reasonable to suppose that in all these ages the use of this faculty has developed in the brain of man a tendency toward this method of communication, and that whether speech sensations be presented to him audibly or visibly the mental response is more in accord with the natural development of the brain than when presented to him by some means other than this all but universal method?

Question 2. What is the comparative value of speech reading as a means of mental development?

I would place the value of speech reading as a means of mental development, both with small children and with the more advanced grades, very high. Attention is one of the first requisites for mental growth, and the close attention required for lip reading makes it rank very high as a means of mental development. It has been my

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experience in what are known as combined schools that the pupils given a test of one, two, or more years in the oral department and then put into the manual department because it was believed they could be better educated there under conditions existing in those schools, were in the years spent in the oral department fully equal, and in most cases in advance, of those pupils who had spent the same length of time in the manual department, and so I think speech reading preferable in the matter of mental development.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. Then why transfer these pupils if their progress was equal?

Mr. ARCHER. For the reason that it was thought they might do better in the manual department.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. But they had not done better.

Mr. ARCHER. Individual cases must be treated according to the individual conditions that exist in the school. You can not have conditions that will apply to every pupil.

Question 3. How does speech reading compare with manual spelling as a means of communication?

I have heard this morning a good deal about instruction through English. Both speech reading and spelling are English. In that sense they may be considered equal, but in my judgment the accent, emphasis, and phrasing given in speech and read from the lips, together with the expression they produce in the features, convey thought more accurately than spelling. I think this is proven by the fact that orally taught pupils usually enjoy reading more than manually taught pupils. Another thing is that colloquialisms and idiomatic expressions are best taught through lip reading, as they must be taught as occasion demands and not through books and specially prepared lessons. Poetry may be comprehended better through speech reading than through spelling, as rhyme, rhythm, etc., lend themselves to speech more readily than to manual spelling.

Question 4. Does not the emphasis naturally used in a spoken sentence make a deeper impression upon the mind of the pupil than the same sentence would make if written or spelled on the fingers?

Yes, it does, very much more. That is borne out conclusively by the experience we have had in the school with which I have been connected for the last five years in what we term our "reading classes." In our three advanced oral classes, where a considerable time—as much as we felt we could possibly be justified in giving the subject—was devoted to systematic reading. We found that the pupils of these classes, taking the same books, were able to go over more ground, able to reproduce their stories better, took more interest in them, and their comprehension was better than that of pupils of the same grade in the manual department where the same stories were spelled and explained, sometimes, I am afraid, in signs.

Question 5. To what extent is it advisable to demand verbatim speech reading?

In the primary class where the little ones are becoming acquainted with the elements, with combinations and with words, forming their first vocabulary, we find it advisable to get, if possible, verbatim lip reading. We do not demand that pupils shall distinguish between elements where there is no difference to be seen on the lips, such as a voice and a voiceless element of the same formation—oo and ow. We

do not insist on this distinction being made, because when the child has read one or the other he has read all he can see and we should not demand more. But, with these limitations, verbatim speech reading is demanded in the lower class up to a point we may term the "language stage." When we get to the point of teaching language it is the thought we want, not the words, and instead of asking or demanding that the child shall give back to me the exact words I have given to him we discourage that and ask for it in his own words. In other words, we divide our work into two stages, one where it is necessary to get verbatim speech reading, and the other where it is not required.

Mr. FRANK READ, jr. If a test on lip reading was being conducted in the school would you demand verbatim speech reading to secure a mark of 100, or would you admit of an answer where the child has expressed the thought that was spoken to him.

Mr. ARCHER. I would accept at full value the answer that expressed the thought in language.

Mr. READ. That has often happened, and I raised the question because in an examination it is sometimes required that pupils give back verbatim, and the feeling on my part would be that if the pupil has expressed the thought he has done his duty, because speech reading at the best is guess work to a certain extent. Let me explain my statement. The best lip readers sometimes lose a word and they must supply it from the context. Any expert lip reader will tell you that.

Mr. ARCHER. Mr. Read has answered his own question, I think. We do not demand verbatim lip reading. What we want is an expression of the thought, and it seems as useless to demand an exact reproduction of what was said as to repeat the exact words which Mr. Read, who has just taken his seat, used in his remarks.

Miss STEINKE. In the beginning oral work when you have lip-reading exercises and you give a symbol, would you mark it right, for instance, if you gave m-oo-n, and the pupil gave p-o-on? Would you mark that right?

Mr. ARCHER. I would if it were an English combination. But if it were not, if it were a foreign one I would tell him that while he read the lips correctly we did not use that sound; that he must try again. Just as you may teach secondary spelling on the chart. When a child writes a word, spelling it phonetically but not correctly, you send him to the chart and have him select another spelling for it.

Miss STEINKE. I mean, wouldn't it be better in the beginning work to teach the child what sounds have certain consonant combinations; then it would not fall into this error.

Mr. ARCHER. I think so.

Question 6. Are not pupils who are required to depend upon speech reading more apt to think in English than those who depend upon other methods of communication?

I will say yes: Yes; in our experience they have been.

Question 7. Has it been your experience that pupils enjoy stories, character sketches, etc., given through speech reading more than the same story read from the printed page?

Yes; it has. They take them better and more quickly—reproduce them better and enjoy them more than when read.

Dr. DOBYNS. Why does Mr. Archer say "yes" to question 6?

Mr. ARCHER. I can only answer by saying my experience leads me to that conclusion.

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Question 9. Can moral instruction be imparted as well through speech reading as by other means?

I would just say in reference to that matter that for four years, in my connection with the North Carolina school, it was part of my duty to conduct on one Sunday morning a very brief chapel exercise for our pupils, orally taught. On the following Sunday the same duty devolved upon me with the manual department. The entire oral department was present in the first case, consisting of about 160 pupils, and in the manual department there were about 75.

Rev. Father MOELLER. How far were the pupils from you?

Mr. ARCHER. Our chapel was about as large as this. I think the chairs were a little smaller than these, which might have brought them nearer.

Rev. Father MOELLER. Was the room better lighted?

Mr. ARCHER. I think not.

Rev. Father MOELLER. Were those in the back row able to see you?

Mr. ARCHER. Those with normal eyesight could.

Rev. Father MOELLER. Was it new material you were giving them?

Mr. ARCHER. I will explain a little further. Our oral services consisted partly of responsive readings which the pupils had memorized and which were led by the leader of the meeting. It consisted partly of concert recitation of standard hymns, and closed with a brief talk, 10, 12, or 15 minutes, by myself on some phase of the lesson they had just studied. The talk was entirely new; they had no idea of what I was going to say.

The same exercises were conducted with the manual department in another room according to manual methods (signs). Judging by every standard I know of, judging results of moral and religious training, to say the least, our oral pupils got as much, I think they got more than, our manual pupils.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. How did you test that?

Mr. ARCHER. Judging by the interest manifested by the pupils as they sat and looked at me. I have never found it difficult to tell whether a pupil understood what I said or not. The conduct of the pupils, the expressions they made, their conversation with me about these things afterwards, and the resulting conduct in their lives all showed to me, as well as I could judge, the oral department received more than the other.

Mr. WHITE. Wouldn't it be a good test to have them reproduce?

Mr. ARCHER. We frequently ask them to reproduce, but I never asked them to reproduce these exercises as a test.

Mrs. BALIS. I have sat right over there and I have not understood one word that has been said, and if I, with 40 years' experience, can not get one word, how can a child of 5 or 6 without language get the meaning? You claim too much; it is not right. I have looked around in oral schools where they say their pupils understand and I am positive that they do not. If I can not, after 40 years' experience in all countries, with all people, and when I know the subject under discussion, still can not understand what is being said, how can you expect a child to do it? I beg of you do not claim so much. It is wrong. Will all the deaf present who have read Mr. Archer's lips please stand up. None rise, I see. The gentleman back there says he is a graduate of Mount Airy and has understood nothing and never has.



Mr. BOOTH. I simply want to call attention to the fact that Mr. Archer has not been addressing deaf pupils. He has not been producing the speech as one does in a deaf school, more or less, to his audience.

Dr. GALLAUDET. I want to make this brief statement in regard to the understanding of instruction given in chapels in schools for the deaf in speech. I have been told by several deaf persons who have attended such exercises in chapels of schools for the deaf that in very many cases where the one who was speaking and giving the instruction supposed and claimed he was understood generally by nearly all persons that that was a mistake; that a very large proportion of those present did not understand what was said. I have had that testimony from quite a number who were present on such occasions. I do not present this with any disposition to invalidate what has been said; I only give it as the testimony of some of those who have been present when such instruction was given that those who gave the instruction were largely in error in supposing themselves understood.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. I wish to offer a dissenting note and go down on record as believing decidedly wrong the statement that the oral presentation is superior in any respect to the manual presentation. So far as religious presentation is concerned I hardly feel worthy or well enough qualified to discuss the religious presentation. My honored father has taken the stand here that the sign language is far superior in the presentation of a religious address to the minds of deaf children. That stand I shall not attempt to negative, because I have not studied that proposition in relation with the results. But I do say that when we claim the oral presentation superior to the manual presentation in the schoolroom we are upon false ground. The oral presentation, with the added power of speech and lip reading, should be given to every child where possible. If my child were deaf he would have the very best oral instruction he could have up to the point where it narrowed him, and then I would say, "Stop." But to say the oral presentation is superior to the manual, provided they are both presented in English, I believe to be a false and pedagogical assertion.

Mr. JENKINS. Without any preliminary remarks I wish to give this experience. I remember some time ago being a guest in the Mount Airy school over night, and listening to the chapel exercises. The pupils assembled after the study hour, and the talk was on Italy. I wondered how many of those pupils understood, and how much. Afterwards I talked with some of them, and I found they were able to answer me intelligently when questioned on the subject which had been discussed.

Mr. MANNING. I can not claim for my pupils what Mr. Archer has claimed for his, because I have never tested it that way. I would like to say though that I do not think Mr. Walker is in a position to speak authoritatively, since, if I am in possession of the facts, he has never tested pupils orally and manually taught after oral and manual chapel exercises.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. I evaded absolutely any statement as to chapel exercises. I do know about the schoolroom and schoolroom tests.

Mr. MANNING. For one year I studied signs religiously in Gallaudet College, and along toward the end of the session I was

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intrusted with the privilege of conducting a few chapel exercises. Afterwards I went to the Georgia school where I taught one year, and where, in turn with three other male teachers, I conducted chapel exercises in signs and spelling six days in the week, from Sunday until Friday. I do not believe I ever gave a test after presenting any subject manually in that school. I went to the Mount Airy school from the Georgia school, not only prejudiced against the possibility of presenting a story orally, but I did not believe successful oral work possible, and even after I saw it done I thought the pupils did not understand. So, when it came my turn to take charge of chapel exercises, I made use of a blackboard twice as large as this one, and used a written outline of my topic; in fact it was only a story written there into which I interjected a few extra sentences, because I did not feel the children could get anything without all these helps. One, two, three years passed, and by daily association with pupils I gained confidence as an oral teacher, and in the possibility of doing the thing orally. This year I have conducted the chapel services three evenings out of every week, and a great many times five evenings, orally, but not without the assistance of the blackboard. I do not know whether I could ever do that. I have not tried it. I have used notes, and I have frequently had the pupils, 175 in number, reproduce the exercises as a language lesson next day, with the permission of the language teachers. I have read the reproductions of those exercises and I have been very much gratified. I believe chapel exercises can be conducted orally with as good results as manually, using the blackboard for illuminating the subject. Leaving out the blackboard, I can not say, because I have never attempted it.

This morning the question of "oral chapel" came up, and I asked one man who doubted the possibility of it if he thought his manual pupils got more from the chapel exercises than the same number of hearing children. He said, "Yes; I know so." I claim quite as much for our oral pupils at Mount Airy.

Mr. ARCHER. What I meant in answering that last question was to give our own experience in support of that answer. I would simply answer the question in the affirmative and say that moral instruction may be imparted as well through speech reading as through manual methods, and to add my own opinion, that it may be better imparted.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. If you will consider the kind of chapel work that has been discussed, you will find that a very great deal of it is very simple, a great deal of it is going over old stories with which the children are familiar. I want you to think not about such work but about the presentation of original thought.

Dr. TATE. I am extremely gratified at the statement of the comparative results of imparting instruction from the oral and manual methods. I have been glad to have them fairly answered. Here is a question I would like to put before the convention. A large percentage of the pupils of our schools are little children that have a very limited vocabulary and a limited capacity for interpreting what they hear. Now a man or woman who is an expert in the use of the sign language and who knows the children and the extent of their language, can certainly reach the primary children of our schools when they can not be reached by speech. What would you

do in your schools in cases of that kind? You understand I am not opposing oral teaching. I am increasing that all the time. Do you not think it wise to instruct the very little and comparatively ignorant ones through the means that will best reach them. I will ask Dr. Crouter what his opinion is.

Dr. CROUTER. I certainly should not use the sign language for purposes of chapel instruction in any of our departments. In the primary department, with the younger children, I would use such speech as the children have. In the intermediate department I should use, and expect teachers to use, such more advanced speech as the pupils have; and with the advanced pupils I expect teachers to use and do myself use oral language which I believe suited to their condition. I would like to add a few words upon this point. A question has been raised here whether or not it is possible to present thought to pupils orally during a chapel lecture or chapel service—that is, beyond simple story telling. I assure you that such is the fact. For years I conducted services in chapel through manual methods. For years I have conducted similar services in chapel by means of speech. I have varied little in the presentation of thought. My methods of lecturing or talking or speaking to our pupils orally taught are very similar to those that I used when conducting services to the pupils manually taught, the difference being that in the latter case I used signs, whereas, with the orally taught I use speech alone. If I am conducting a chapel service on a Sunday afternoon, as I nearly always do, I follow a simple prepared chapel service; I take a text from the Scriptures just as I used to do with manual pupils. I jot down a few notes and then I talk to my audience. I speak to the pupils. In doing so I do not hesitate to use an ordinary gesture, just as you would do in addressing a hearing audience, but the lecture is given in speech and it is understood. I have gone to the classroom again and again and had the matter tested. Dr. Gallaudet, for whom I have the very highest respect, has stated that some of the pupils from our school have gone to Washington and said they did not understand these lectures. Doubtless that is the case. I have had students manually taught who have attended sign lectures in Washington tell me they did not understand the lectures there. I have had the testimony of a professor in Gallaudet College that he had taken the matter up very carefully and followed it month after month with the result that he found the students couldn't reproduce in English the substance of lectures presented in chapel through signs. I do not think that this is a reflection on the students or on the services. The truth is you will find failures under both methods. You will find successes under both methods. You are not to condemn the one because of a few failures, nor the other. We must approve both according to the successes of both.

Dr. N. F. WALKER. Did you ever take occasion to ask a normal person after he had been to church what the text was?

Dr. CROUTER. Yes, and usually met with failure. More than that, many times in my own church in Mount Airy, I have tried to understand, using my hearing only, what was said by the rector. I only get about one-third of it.

I will now introduce Miss Yale, who has charge of the next conference.

## CONFERENCE ON VALUE OF VISIBLE SPEECH AS A MEANS OF DEVELOPING AND CORRECTING SPEECH.

Directed by Miss CAROLINE A. YALE, Northampton, Mass.

1. In what does the inherent value of the symbols of visible speech consist?
2. Compare the value of diagrams and visible-speech symbols.
3. How can the pictorial character of the symbols be best impressed upon the pupil's mind?
4. At what point in the course of instruction is it wise to begin the use of the symbols?
5. Would a knowledge of visible speech be of any practical benefit to the student in after school life?
6. Does the study of visible speech assist in the training of the ear of teacher?
7. Are the existing symbols and modifiers sufficient to meet all needs?
8. What is the best book for private study of visible speech?

Miss CAROLINE A. YALE:

Question 1. In what does the inherent value of the symbols of visible speech consist?

The inherent value of the symbols of visible speech consist in their pictorial value. Each symbol is simply an abbreviated diagram of the organ of speech in position for one of the elementary sounds of which spoken words are composed.

Question 2. Compare the value of diagrams and visible-speech symbols.

The diagram is taught from a section of the head of the manikin and retains its pictorial character. The visible-speech symbol is this same diagram so abbreviated that it loses—to a little child—its pictorial value. On the other hand, the diagrams form too complicated a representation of sounds for easy use. They may well be employed for the representation of single sounds, and are especially valuable for the teaching of elementary sounds, while the more rapid representation by visible-speech symbols is better suited to the pronunciation of words and the representations of the modifications of speech, resulting from phrasing, etc.

Question 3. How can the pictorial character of the symbols be best impressed upon the pupil's mind?

First, by teaching the symbols from the diagrams and by constantly referring to the original diagram. Second, by asking pupils frequently to tell what each symbol means. Third, by giving sounds and asking pupils to give descriptions of symbols for their sounds.

Question 4. At what point in the course of instruction is it wise to begin the use of symbols?

I want to ask Mr. Walker, sr., to answer that question.

Dr. N. F. WALKER. We began the work of speech teaching in our school in 1880 with a young lady trained for the work by Dr. Bell himself. She began the use of Bell's visible speech symbols. From the first day the pupils were taken into her room, and I watched with the greatest interest the results of that training, I must confess the impression made upon me as to the results of the use of Bell's symbols in the oral department has remained with me until to-day. We still have one teacher in our school who uses these symbols, gives them to her children the first year, and I am sure no first-year pupils in any oral school have made surer, more satisfactory advancement than the pupils of that class. A teacher from one of the leading

schools of the country paid us a visit just before the close of the school and spent two days in that room. She told me that she had visited several of the schools where oral methods were used and had seen nothing better than the work of that primary teacher.

Miss YALE. May I ask Mr. Manning to give the experience of the Philadelphia school in recent years?

Mr. MANNING. In the primary class the diagrams are used, as you see on the board, representing the elements and the development of speech gradually, for the purpose of aiding the child to get a clear idea of vocal physiology without knowing what that means. That is continued through our intermediate department and into the lower grades of our advanced department. When these symbols were introduced into our school, the work was begun at the top with the most advanced class. They proved successful there and a great benefit in corrective speech, so they were adopted in the class just below, then in the one just below that, and they have gone down from the most advanced class there is and are being used now in our B grade, comprising the next four classes below the highest five; and in the C grade, composed of the next four classes, it is used. The use of these symbols, after they had been introduced into the most advanced class, was asked for by the class in the lower grade and they insisted so on their introduction that the teacher thought it might be worth while.

Miss YALE. How many years have they been in school?

Mr. MANNING. That class has been in school seven or eight years.

Mr. JOHNSON, of Indiana. In Indiana we start in with these drawings the very first year in the kindergarten class and by Christmas time those little tots, 7 or 8 years of age, are beginning to read quite a number.

Miss YALE. Visible speech symbols or diagrams?

Mr. JOHNSON, of Indiana. Diagrams.

Miss YALE. I hardly think there are many oral teachers who do not use the diagrams in primary work, but, with the revival of visible speech, the question has arisen, "Are we to give the visible-speech symbols themselves to the children or not?" "Or are we to retain for primary use the original diagrams, which are pictorial, and use the symbols not at all or use them only for older pupils?"

Mr. LAURENS WALKER. How long before these symbols become mere arbitrary characters in the mind of the child, say 8 years old? If he sees them daily, how long before they do?

Miss YALE. Very soon, in my opinion. I have purposely asked representatives of different schools for an expression of opinion on this matter.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. Will you not tell us about your own school?

Miss YALE. Our own schools years ago introduced visible speech, one of the first schools in the country to do so. Dr. Bell came to us and taught and we decided to introduce visible speech. His theory was that a child could be taught speech entirely from the visible-speech symbols for some years and that the child should be taught language through writing during these years; that the child read his English, but speak only from the symbols. There came a time, of course, that the translation process had to be made. We never carried out this plan for so long a time as Dr. Bell advised. While we knew that Dr. Bell's theory had in it much of excellence we felt

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that we could not go on so long in that way. Accordingly we lessened the time. But for 10 years we taught our children speech through visible-speech symbols, starting with the diagrams, but early abbreviating the diagrams into the symbols and then giving pronunciation of all words through the characters of visible speech. We became convinced that we were simply cumbering the little child with another alphabet and we therefore abandoned the use of visible speech.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. Did you still retain the diagrams?

Miss YALE. We abandoned the symbols but retained the diagrams, keeping the symbols for the teacher and as a means of study, but not introducing them to the children at all. Recently, with the revival of visible speech, with the possibility of having printed matter, it has occurred to us to do what we have been doing at intervals all these years, viz, review the older children's knowledge of speech positions, their knowledge of the anatomy of the organs of speech, by giving them these symbols in their later years in school. We had done it at intervals, always with interest on the part of the class, but when two or three years ago printed visible speech was provided for us we decided it was worth while to do more of this work. We began with the highest class, as we had done in all these years—began with a careful study of the anatomy of the organs of speech. These pupils had studied general anatomy. We simply gave them a little more detailed study of these organs and then we began to show them the formation of sounds through the visible-speech characters. It was fascinating to them. They had known something about the formations of sounds, but they knew more when they took it up in this way. By continually referring to the diagram we keep the pictorial element in mind. We find our older children writing and talking visible speech, interested in everything they find printed in the symbols.

Dr. N. F. WALKER. I have been very much gratified with the statement. I stand second to nobody in the United States in my great interest in the possibility of oral work. And, if you will remember, at a meeting of the association in Pittsburgh, after consulting some of the leaders in the work, I offered a resolution, which was unanimously passed, that at least a working knowledge of Bell's visible-speech symbols was absolutely necessary for the preparation of an oral teacher. I have never lost my faith for one instant in its possibilities.

A MEMBER. I am glad to hear you started at the top and are going down. It will not be five years before it is in your primary class.

Miss YALE. While Mr. Walker and Dr. Crouter disagree, we will have to leave it as an open question.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. In going over these diagrams with the older pupils, do you not have them explain in English as well as in the symbols?

Miss YALE. Certainly. If I were asking an older pupil about this diagram on the slate, I would ask him to describe the position and to tell me all about the position—what was meant by center aperture, what was meant by divided aperture, etc.

Mr. PERCIVAL HALL. Some years ago we had an opinion from Mr. Jones in regard to the use of diagrams in teaching English grammar.



The symbols may be helpful to a certain extent, but unless a pupil can give the descriptions in good English the symbols are useless.

Question 5. Would a knowledge of visible speech be of any practical benefit to the student in after-school life?

Miss YALE. Yes; we have the testimony of some of our pupils that it is a great help to them. We have had a number of pupils who graduated in the years when we did not use it who have come back asking for it, asking for a little help in the study of it, and in a short time they got enough knowledge of it to be a real help to them.

I will ask Mr. Harris Taylor to answer the next question.

Question 6. Does the study of visible speech assist in the training of the ear of the teacher?

Mr. HARRIS TAYLOR. The intelligent study of visible speech is a great aid. I know that in my own experience. I had studied visible speech in an unintelligent way, and I got no benefit from it whatever, and I felt that there could be no good in visible speech. Then I was fortunate enough to find a very good teacher (who is not very far from me), and I began to study visible speech in an intelligent manner and with a greater degree of intelligence, I think, since which time I have certainly been aided greatly in the training of my own ear. Then I had the temerity, the egotism—whatever you may term it—to undertake to teach visible speech myself to the pupils in the Kentucky school, who couldn't very well help themselves. Those who got the subject in a proper way invariably showed an ability to distinguish sounds that they did not show before they began this study. I do think an intelligent study of visible speech is one of the greatest aids in ear training that one may have.

Question 7. Are the existing symbols and modifiers sufficient to meet all needs?

Miss YALE. Dr. Alexander Bell thought them to be so. [Applause.] I do not think we need to say any more. He knew so much more than any of us that his judgment is better than ours.

Question 8. What is the best book for private study of visible speech?

The living teacher, and nothing else will take the place of it. You can not teach sound or representations of sound without having sound. There are one or two books that are a great help, but the great danger in them—and it is this that has brought visible speech into disrepute—is that these characters have been learned as the simple equivalent of letters. "Sounds and Their Relations," by Dr. Bell, and, possibly, the later book of Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, "Mechanism of Speech," are perhaps the two best books. I understand, however, that the first is out of print.

Mr. BOOTH. Where does "principles of speech" come in?

Miss YALE. It is invaluable as a textbook, but has nothing to do with visible speech itself. It doesn't use the symbols as the basis of work.

There being no further questions the chairman declared the conference closed.

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## CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING UNDER ORAL METHODS.

Directed by Mr. SAMUEL G. DAVIDSON, Mount Airy, Pa.

1. What are the essentials of language teaching by the oral method?
2. What should be the order of development of thought and its expression in teaching language to the deaf?
3. Should gestures be employed at all in teaching language by the oral method, and if so, to what extent?
4. In oral recitations, should pupils be required to give their answers in complete sentences?
5. What may be done to prevent pupils from talking in isolated words and phrases, instead of complete sentences, and what can be done to correct this habit when once formed? Illustration: Many pupils will say, "Home-to-morrow?" meaning "Will you go home to-morrow?" or "Shall we go home to-morrow?"
6. How may the grammar of the language best be taught, so as most to contribute to development of thought and correctness of expression?
7. Of what special value is English literature to the deaf, and how may they be interested in it?
8. What may be suggested as a remedy for the slowness with which some pupils express themselves in speech?
9. Of what value is reproduction from dictation and how should it be conducted?
10. Upon what mental faculties and states does progress in language depend, and how may these be developed and governed?
11. Would not results be better if primary and lower intermediate classes were half their usual size, thus permitting more individual attention in mental development and language teaching, making the more advanced classes larger than at present if for reasons of economy it is inadvisable to increase the number of teachers?

Mr. Samuel G. Davidson, of Pennsylvania, who was to have conducted the conference on language teaching under oral methods, not being present, a motion was introduced, and unanimously carried, that as the time was so short, the reading of Mr. Davidson's paper be omitted, but that a copy of the same be spread upon the records of the proceedings.

The following is Mr. Davidson's paper:

The time allotted to this section is not sufficient to answer fully any one of the questions, each of which might serve as the text for a lengthy paper. I shall therefore confine myself to a few salient points and treat them in a manner which, if not very instructive, will, I hope, be suggestive and productive of helpful discussion.

"1. What are the essentials of language teaching by the oral method?"

By the time he graduates, the pupil should so far have mastered the English language that he will be able to express himself correctly and fluently, whether by speech or by writing, in connection with all the ordinary affairs of life. He should also have acquired a reading vocabulary sufficient for him to understand, enjoy, and profit by the contents of books, magazines, and newspapers of the day. The English language sense should have been so far developed in him that he will think in it and employ it naturally and without effort in communication with others. These are the essentials of his education in English, and the extent of his attainments in them measures the success or failure of him and of his teachers. There is, of course, much more than this that should be accomplished if his intelligence, the time he remains at school, and other conditions make it possible, but I believe that every deaf child of normal mind can learn this much within the time allowed in all American schools for the deaf, provided the methods of instruction from the beginning to the end of the course are what they should be, and if all his teachers are capable and faithful in the performance of their duties.

"2. What should be the order of development of thought and its expression in teaching language to the deaf?"

The old idea in psychology was that the several faculties of the mind were most active at particular stages of bodily growth and that the studies of the

child should be so arranged as to promote their development at the proper times and to utilize them to the best advantage in imparting knowledge. The newest idea in education is that all the faculties—perception, recognition, memory, imagination, reasoning—are equally capable of development from the earliest age and that the neglect of any one of them or concentration upon any particular one at any time produces inequalities and abnormalities that make impossible the highest attainments in mental growth and efficiency. The truth of this later theory appears to be demonstrated by the success of the methods employed in the instruction of Master Sidis and other educational prodigies of whom the magazines have recently had so much to say. It might be held that it is likewise proven, inversely, by the poor results obtained with the great majority of deaf children who are isolated from those influences which contribute to the development of all the faculties in normal children, and whose teachers so generally add to this natural handicap by purposely withholding whatever demands exercise of certain powers of the mind, or of a number of the powers in combination, in the belief that they are thus making things easy for their pupils and forestalling mental confusion and confusion of language. Development of thought and of language should not be along a straight line, but should extend in all directions, from the initial attempt to excite intelligence and to give it means of expression, and it should progress as rapidly as the ability of the individual child to assimilate and apply instruction makes possible. Nature sets no bounds to which the teacher need restrict herself or her pupils, except that certain things may be beyond the child's comprehension from his ignorance of the terms in which they are expressed or of the facts upon which they are based. When this is recognized in the lower grades of our schools and all the faculties and modes of thought and their expression receive their proper share of exercise—progressing from the simpler to the more complex—children will not come to the thought studies of the upper grades unable to conceive a fact when it is presented to them, to remember it, to reason on it, to apply it, and to express it correctly in terms of their own choosing.

"3. Should gestures be employed at all in teaching language by the oral method to deaf children; and if so, to what extent?"

My work has been confined to the most advanced grades, but I have had pupils of all degrees of intelligence, proficiency in speech, and attainments in language. I have never found it necessary to resort to gestures, nor thought it advisable to use them more than one naturally would in speaking to an audience of hearing people. I believe that, in all grades, teachers should be careful not to create in the child an expectancy of assistance from signs, either natural or conventional, in understanding what it is aimed to give him through speech or writing. This applies as much to combined as to exclusively oral schools. Whatever virtue there may be in signs, when used by themselves, they can work only harm if employed as aids in speech or language teaching.

"4. In oral recitations, should pupils be required to give their answers in complete sentences?"

Pupils should always be taught and required to speak naturally. People do not generally talk after the abbreviated manner permitted by many teachers in recitations. Sometimes a single word or a phrase is permissible, but the rule among cultured people is to answer deliberately and in complete sentences, varying the language so as not to repeat the words of the question. If asked, "How are you enjoying yourself here?" you would not reply, "Very much," unless you intended a snub or lacked the ability to express yourself. Neither would you say, as so many of the deaf do when they attempt to extend their reply to a question, "I am enjoying myself very much here." You would say, "I am having a delightful time," or something to that effect. The pupils should be taught to answer questions after this manner not only because it will improve their language, but also, and chiefly, because it is the proper way. A good method of doing it is to have them ask the questions while the teacher answers them.

"5. What can be done to prevent pupils from talking in isolated words and phrases, instead of complete sentences; and what can be done to correct the habit when once formed? Illustration: Many pupils will say 'Home—tomorrow?' meaning 'Will you go home to-morrow?' or 'Shall we go home to-morrow?'"

Teachers should be careful when talking to their pupils not to place undue stress upon particular words either by repeating them alone or by emphasis

of lip movement, or if it be necessary to do this to enable the pupil to grasp the word, the sentence as a whole should afterwards be repeated. In this, and other ways, it should constantly be impressed upon the child's mind that the sentence, not the word, is the unit of expression. When he uses isolated words or phrases, the pupil should be instantly and always checked and required to repeat what he says, in a complete sentence. Much patience and long-continued practice are necessary to overcome the habit when once formed. I have noticed not a few teachers who have fallen into this manner of speaking when addressing the deaf, and for these the first duty is, of course, to correct themselves.

"6. How may the grammar of the language best be taught by the oral method, and so as most to contribute to development of mind and improvement of language?"

The five-slate system is a form of instruction in language now practiced in nearly all schools for the deaf. It can be employed to advantage only for a short time, and then there is an unfortunate tendency to drop all systematic work in language such as might be classed as grammar teaching. As almost all the work of the lower and intermediate grades is in speech and language teaching, with the change to the so-called natural method of instruction by which the child learns language merely by reading and using it, there remains little to exercise and develop the conscious memory, the ability to classify, and the power to reason that are required for satisfactory progress in the higher grades. As between the older method of teaching language through grammar and the present natural method, the better results in language are obtained under the latter, but I believe that the two methods should be combined, that they would not interfere with each other, that still better results would be secured, and that mental development would be far superior.

In my own work in grammar with upper classes I make no use of textbooks, and practically all the work is oral. The pupils are required to construct their own definitions, to reason out the rules, to remember what they learn without the assistance of a printed lesson from which they might learn by rote, and if they forget they must go back so far as may be necessary and work it out again. Thus taught, grammar is at once a lesson in speech, in lip reading, and in language, and a valuable means of mental development. At the same time they learn grammar much faster, retain it better, and apply it more effectively to the correction of their English than they would if they were taught from a textbook.

"7. Of what special value is English literature to the deaf, and how may they be interested in it?"

English literature—that is, the study of the best English writings, not of the writers—is of special value to the deaf as a means of developing their emotions and a consciousness of power and beauty in thought and expression. The hearing have many means of culture available—music, oratory, the drama, and others—but for the deaf there is, aside from painting and sculpture, good examples of which are rarely available, but this one source of intellectual enrichment and enjoyment. It should therefore be the aim of every teacher, throughout the course, to prepare them to make the most of it.

There may now be had selections from and simplified and abridged renderings of the works of most of the best authors, such as *Children's Stories* from Dickens, and *Boys and Girls* of Thackeray, which can be read with interest by quite young pupils. There are other books written specially for children, which, by the quality of thought and style, are admirably suited to prepare them for more advanced literature. Teachers should put these into the hands of their pupils as early as possible—which is much earlier than most of them think—and by their own interest in them, stimulate the interest of the children. The reading of such books, and, in the advanced classes, of the standard writers, should be made, in schools for the deaf as it is in schools for the hearing, an essential and required part of the course in English.

"8. What may be suggested as a remedy for the slowness with which some pupils express themselves in speech?"

Teachers should themselves avoid the practice of speaking with unnecessary slowness. The example set them by their instructors at a critical period in their education is probably responsible for this and many other defects found in the speech of our pupils. Too much manipulation of the pupil's voice, too frequent cautions, and the severity with which he is corrected may also create in the child's mind a fear that produces hesitation and slowness of enunciation.



The best way to correct it is to take the child's mind off his speech and concentrate it upon the thought. The repetition of memorized paragraphs without interruption for correction of speech—the teacher taking mental note of corrections to be made at the close if necessary—should help; also much reading aloud of language so simple that he will have little difficulty with the pronunciation. Having the child repeat what he has said several times with increasing rapidity I have also found effective in correcting the fault.

"9. Of what value is reproduction from dictation, and how should it be conducted?"

Reproduction from dictation is of value in teaching both language and lip reading, but, except when it is used as a test of the latter—not to teach it—the pupil should be required to concentrate upon the sense of what is said and to reproduce in his own way, using as little or as much as he may choose of the language of the speaker. This method will make the better lip reader and give the more valuable practice in language. When required to reproduce, word for word, the ability to infer the unknown word from the thought into which it enters is not cultivated, and this is a very important part of lip reading. Verbal reproduction is also a mere exercise of the memory; it is mechanical and is of little educational value.

"10. Upon what mental faculties and states does progress in language depend, and how may these be developed and governed?"

The child must be happy, contented, at peace with himself and those around him, and so in a receptive mood, to get much benefit from language teaching. A cheerful, harmonious atmosphere in the schoolroom is the first essential.

He must be trained to see clearly and correctly. The mistakes pupils often make in copying exercises show how deficient they are in this respect. The habit should be cultivated by much practice early in the school course. He must be trained to recall what he has seen on the teacher's lips, on a slate or in a book after a single reading. This may be done by requiring him to remember short, simple statements and extending them and making them more complex as he progresses. One who is accustomed to learn everything only by numerous repetitions will never know much of language or of other things.

He should have not only a quick, but also a retentive memory, and to this end he should be held responsible for what he has learned, not merely for the day, but for all time. This sense of responsibility is weakened by too much assistance and too frequent repetitions by the teacher and by the failure to give test reviews at proper intervals.

The pupil can not be said to have any language of his own so long as he merely repeats sentences given him by a teacher or memorized from a book. Except when being given exercises for development of verbal memory, he should be required to reproduce the thought in his own language, and he should be given plenty of work that requires original expression.

He must learn to infer the meaning of words from the thought as a whole of which it is in part the expression. He will do this unconsciously if he is given plenty of reading that is not too far beyond him, nor yet unnecessarily simple.

Imagination and reasoning—conscious and unconscious—should be cultivated as necessary to thought and to the correct forms in which it may be expressed.

English must be made his vernacular and his most natural means of communication, and to this end any other mode of expression should be excluded.

Language is but the medium for the expression of thought and the emotions. The pupil will improve in the subject only as he grows in knowledge and feeling, and he should be brought as rapidly as may be into contact with all that will increase the one and stimulate the other. This should always be done through the English language itself. Otherwise we divorce the thought from the language.

#### CONFERENCE ON THE NECESSARY EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS OF CANDIDATES FOR ORAL TEACHING.

Directed by President PERCIVAL HALL, Washington, D. C.

##### A. Requirements for admission to normal training:

- (1) Should a college degree be required of all candidates?
- (2) Should they be examined before admission to a training course?
- (3) If so, in what subjects?
- (4) In what order of importance should these subjects be ranked?

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B. Requirements of candidates before they are prepared to teach successfully:

- (1) What period of time should be required for special training?
- (2) Should a considerable knowledge of the history of the education of the deaf be required?
- (3) Should facility in the use of the manual alphabet be demanded?
- (4) How much knowledge of the language of signs is desirable?
- (5) Is any knowledge of "visible speech" really necessary?
- (6) Is training in psychology essential?
- (7) If so, how should it be carried out?
- (8) In what pedagogical principles should the candidates be most thoroughly grounded?

President HALL. I believe the simplest way to get on with this conference subject, as our time is short, is to follow Miss Yale's example, and proceed with the questions as printed, giving the briefest possible answers.

Question 1. Should a college degree be required of all candidates?

I believe, if possible, the candidates should have a college degree or a degree from a good normal school. That is setting a pretty high standard, but I believe we should keep that standard in mind always and come as near to it as we can. In our own class we try to find college or normal-school graduates wishing to be trained. Under exceptional circumstances only do we take candidates not having these qualifications.

Question 2. Should they be examined before admission to a training course?

Unless they have a diploma or degree from a reputable school, I believe they should.

Questions 3 and 4. If so, in what subjects and in what order of importance should these subjects be ranked?

First, in English (ranking that the most important subject); in the ability to write clear, simple English. Second, in mathematics. Third, in some foreign language. And, personally, I believe that some test of manual ability would also be a good thing. I hope the day will come when we will add to this examination a physical examination; and still further, at a remote day perhaps, a psychological examination. A great many young men and women who think they might make good teachers are, I think, mistaken, and the sooner it is found out the better.

Question 1. What period of time should be required for special training?

Not less than one year; and that means not less than one year in the training class. A teacher's training must go on as long as he works.

One or two of these questions I put down simply to call the attention of our members to one or two studies in the training which I believe sometimes neglected.

Question 2. Should a considerable knowledge of the history of the education of the deaf be required?

Yes; it is very important in the education of every teacher and should receive much more attention than it does.

Questions 3 and 4. Should facility in the use of the manual alphabet be demanded? How much knowledge of the language of signs is desirable?

These two questions might lead to a great deal of discussion, and possibly to our missing our dinners. I will explain what I intend by

asking them and the point I wish to bring out. I am a firm believer in the preparation of every teacher for every kind of work. I do not believe we want to have our teachers piecework people. In factories a man makes a certain thing always; he may never go on to any other part. I believe we need teachers who are not only prepared to give the elements, the proper formation of them, and to teach the pupils to read lips, but that they should be able to understand the education of the deaf, to understand deaf people wherever they meet them; that they should be able to understand their speech and be able to get into contact with them. I do not believe anyone here would make the statement that in any school for the deaf, or in any classroom in any school for the deaf, the children do not express themselves sometimes in the sign language, or do not sometimes try to express themselves in the manual alphabet. I believe every teacher should be able to understand what the child is trying to say, what is going on in his mind. That does not mean he is going to use the language of signs freely in teaching. It means he is to understand the mind of the child, everything he is trying to express to his classmates or to the teacher. Ability to use the sign language and the manual alphabet is a very valuable asset.

Question 5. Is any knowledge of visible speech really necessary?

I hardly need to answer that. We have kept up careful instruction in visible speech to all of our normal classes since 1891. We expect to keep it up.

Question 6. Is training in psychology essential?

Yes.

Question 7. If so, how should it be carried out?

That is a difficult problem for us to meet in a short course. We can not expect to carry on much experimental psychology in a short course, but a simple textbook course ought to be given and material picked out and assigned for study to the candidates. The psychology of speech should also be studied.

Question 8. In what pedagogical principles should the candidates be most thoroughly grounded?

The simple basic principles of what education means. Leading out the thoughts of the child with the view that the child must express himself and not be a mirror or phonograph. The failure of a great many teachers, I believe, is in that very thing. It is so much easier to give, and give and not get, that they follow the lines of least resistance. That is what causes the failures among the students of our own college; they have been filled up, not drawn out. They haven't been educated. A principle not as important as that, but a vital principle which every teacher must study, is the principle of interest, because in that lies much of the successful work of all teachers. Candidates for oral teaching are very much more than that. They must aim to become educators in all senses of the word and must know all methods that are good for any teacher.

No questions being asked, the chairman declared the conference closed.

## CONFERENCE ON NORMAL TRAINING OF ORAL TEACHERS.

Directed by Mr. HARRIS TAYLOR, New York.

1. Will you briefly outline a course of study for normal students?
2. Broadly speaking, what proportion of time should be given to each subject of the course of study?
3. In what respect is the present system of training lacking?
4. What may the teachers be expected to accomplish after a year of training?
5. Under what conditions should the training of oral teachers be undertaken?
6. Can effective training be given in a very small school?
7. What is the best age to begin training?
8. What proportion of time should be given to observation and substitute teaching?
9. How may normal students be taught to observe to advantage?
10. How far does kindergarten training aid a teacher in her work?
11. How much does a knowledge of singing aid in articulation work with the deaf child?
12. To what extent should psychology enter into the training system?
13. Should the presentation of principles in arithmetic, geography, language, etc., have a place in the course of study?
14. How far should the normal student be made responsible in planning her work, and in results, considering the welfare of both the school and the student teacher?
15. Is a knowledge of visible speech necessary for successful oral teaching?
16. To what do you attribute the habit of mouthing prevalent among orally trained teachers?
17. How far should normal students be trusted in the development of elementary sounds or in the correction of defective sounds?
18. Why do a large number of normal students ask for primary work when they begin teaching?
19. Should normal students be taught the sign language and the manual alphabet?

Mr. TAYLOR. Mr. President, ladies, and gentlemen: Even at this late hour I feel it necessary to preface this conference with the statement that these questions contain errors, blunders, and mistakes. These mistakes are due to the carelessness of a man for whom I have a profound admiration, but I am aware that he must shoulder this responsibility. I refer to myself.

I wish also to say that I was fully and completely instructed as to how this conference should be conducted, but when it came time for me to prepare these questions these instructions from Mr. Dobyns escaped my mind and I prepared questions on which I sought light rather than those which I was able to answer. In other words, I came here with the intention of absorbing, not to radiate.

I will ask Miss Yale to answer question 1 for us.

Question 1. Will you briefly outline a course of study for normal students?

Miss YALE. A course of study for normal students should cover the following subjects: (1) Elementary psychology; (2) general pedagogy; (3) history of the education of the deaf; (4) mental development of deaf children, including preparatory sense training, kindergarten occupations, blackboard drawing, methods and devices for the elementary teaching of language, numbers, and geography, general suggestions for studies of grammar and high school; (5) speech and speech reading; (6) visible speech; (7) moral and religious training; (8) industrial training.

Mr. TAYLOR. I have asked Mr. Jones, of Ohio, to answer the next question.

Question 3. In what respect is the present system of training lacking?

Mr. J. W. JONES. The two principal places for the training of teachers of course are Washington and Northampton. I have never had any experience with teachers trained at Washington but will have this year. We have had three teachers from the Northampton school, all well prepared. If I were to make any suggestion it would be that if possible the time of training be lengthened so as to give the students more opportunity for study and observation.

In view, however, of the resolution passed by the conference, asking each school to get ready to prepare its own teachers, I may have had some experience which will prove helpful.

About six years ago we had occasion to reorganize the training department of our school so as to do better work. I felt it very important that we secure the right person to have charge of this work and took a good deal of time to find her. I made it a requirement of the teacher to be selected that she be a college graduate, so that the teachers would respect her education; that her training should be under Miss Yale, and, if possible, that her experience should have been in the Philadelphia school. We had many applicants, all good women, but we were three years finding one who met all conditions. I have a great belief that Providence will in some way come around and help us to realize an ambition when it is an unselfish one for the good of others. I wanted our school to be in a position to train our teachers well. The oral teachers were called together and told they were to begin at the beginning and were expected to offer themselves as beginners. Furthermore, that after the opening of school the next year, no signs or spelling would be permitted in the oral classes, and that any teacher who could not comply with these regulation need not sign her contract. After talking things over they agreed that this was what was needed in our school, signed their contracts, and entered upon the work with earnestness. We have pursued that course for two years. At the present time we are much pleased with the progress we have made, and no one is more pleased than the teachers. They fully realized after the attempt was made, and they had begun to understand the real methods of teaching speech, how much time they had lost. So much have we been impressed with the excellence of that kind of work that we have added for the following year one more teacher in that department.

I know our work is so much better than we did before that I am glad to speak of it and recommend it. Educated and intelligent supervision is very important to secure the best teaching.

Question 4. What may the teachers be expected to accomplish after a year of training?

Mr. TAYLOR. It depends on the teacher and on the training. I know a teacher who, after one year's training in the school that I have the honor to represent, can go into a schoolroom in any grade and teach arithmetic better than anyone else in the place, except 2 out of 23 teachers. I know another who, after one year, is doing better work than some who have taught 15 or 20 years, and I know others who might go back and be retrained. But I should say, with careful training, with judicious training, that a teacher should do considerable fairly satisfactory work after one year's training.

Question 5. Under what conditions should the training of oral teachers be undertaken?

If possible, under oral conditions. I recognize that most excellent work in training and excellent teachers have come from combined schools. But I believe the most effective training of oral teachers can be had in oral schools. I think another condition is that it should be in a school of sufficient size to have quite a number of classes to give very careful and good grading.

I will call on Dr. Crouter to answer question 6.

Question 6. Can effective training be given in a very small school?

Dr. CROUTER. May I ask what is meant by a very small school?

Mr. TAYLOR. I had in mind a school with fewer than 20 pupils.

Dr. CROUTER. I would simply say that in such a school, if all grades of work receive attention and if there are teachers who will stand for all grades of instruction, training may be given just as well as in a larger school. Good training depends on good opportunity; if the opportunity is present the training will follow.

Mr. TAYLOR. I will ask Mr. Gruver to answer question 7.

Question 7. What is the best age to begin training?

Mr. GRUVER. As soon as they come out of college. Between 20 and 25.

Mr. GOODWIN. Would you admit for training of the deaf one who was 40 or over?

Mr. TAYLOR. It would depend on who she was and what she had been. If she was taking it up without having been engaged in any allied work I should hesitate about admitting her. It would be preferable, whatever her previous work had been, to take her training younger.

Question 8. What proportion of time should be given to observation and substitute teaching?

I should say, generally speaking, about 4 hours a day for 5 days in the week, for 40 weeks in the year. At least that.

I would like to have Mr. Blattner answer question 9.

Question 9. How may normal students be taught to observe to advantage?

Mr. BLATTNER. If I understand your question correctly, it means, rather, how may they be directed or guided. I would not teach them at all to observe. If a normal student requires teaching in observation, I think his place is back in the graded schools or academic part of some college. Our work in observation has been limited to a very short time before we put our teachers to work. Conditions have, in a measure, required that; these conditions we could not very well avoid for the time. But I think the better way of having teachers observe is to have them observe the work as it progresses through the year, not the beginning or the results. Now, when teachers throughout the country go to a summer training school to observe the work they observe results, but they do not see the struggle the teacher has in producing those results—the struggle that the normal teacher will have to go through himself. There is the defect in having observation along with our normal work during the summer—a defect that we can not avoid. Now, Miss Yale makes it one of her conditions that a teacher must have had a year's experience before he or she is



eligible to that summer normal course, and I think it is a good condition. I can see where Miss Yale does not want to assume the responsibility of taking in green hands and then allowing them simply to see the result of the year's work. When we attended Miss Yale's normal class, we were taken through the classes. There was a regular rotation of going through their classes and watching the work. They tried to repeat the work going on as it had been going on during the year, but that is not the real thing. Now, I think where conditions make it possible, normal students should go through a year's work in observing. I think they should go into the school-room and observe the teacher who is teaching elements, correcting the faulty speech on the part of the children, and then, having seen this a number of times, I think they should be allowed, under the direction and eye of that teacher, to undertake to do the same things themselves—to teach and correct. And I believe, too, that the observation should go along coincident, as much as possible, with the theoretical instruction, so that while the theoretical instruction is fresh upon the mind the normal student may observe the work in the classroom and fix it upon his or her mind.

Mr. TAYLOR. I will call on Miss McCowen to answer question 10.

Question 10. How far does kindergarten training aid a teacher in her work?

Miss McCOWEN. To my mind, kindergarten training deals with the beginning of things and therefore with the essential things. It is an underlying principle. It is not merely the manipulation of certain kinds of material sometimes called kindergarten material, but a study of the principles underlying all education. I would say it is a very great help.

Mr. TAYLOR. I will ask Miss Wettstein to answer question 11.

Question 11. How much does a knowledge of singing aid in articulation work with the deaf child?

Miss WETTSTEIN. I think it is not absolutely essential, but I think it is very desirable. A singer has a more sensitive ear, and the more sensitive the ear the more easily she recognizes the foreign sounds that creep in; and in the placing of the voice I think it is essential I should advise the beginning teacher to have some knowledge of singing and of voice culture in general.

Question 12. To what extent should a study of psychology enter into the system of training?

Mr. TAYLOR. To the fullest practical extent. The teacher should study one or more of the latest and best approved textbooks and, of more importance, should study human nature as exhibited in the deaf child, both in out of school.

Question 13. Should the presentation of principles in arithmetic, geography, language, etc., have a place in the course of study?

Yes; a prominent place.

Question 14. How far should the normal student be made responsible in planning her work, and in results, considering the welfare of both the school and the student-teacher?

Considering the student-teacher, to a very large extent, considering the school, the normal student should be under supervision for a while and under guidance throughout her course of training.

Question 15. Is a knowledge of visible speech necessary for successful oral teaching?

To say the least, this knowledge is beneficial. There are good, even excellent, teachers who are familiar with visible speech, but these teachers, in my opinion, could do more effective work if they had mastered visible speech.

Question 16. To what do you attribute the habit of mouthing, prevalent among orally trained teachers?

I suppose it is due to the fact that when they first go before the child they exhibit a degree of nervousness that is detrimental to good lip reading, and they try to emphasize and throw so much into it that they make it impossible for a child who is accustomed to their way of using the mouth to understand ordinary speech.

Question 17. How far should normal students be trusted in the correction of defective sounds?

They should be trusted after they have learned the nature of the defective sounds and after they have received instruction in the manner of correcting these defects to the extent that they show common sense in applying their knowledge of the subject.

Question 18. Why do a large number of normal students ask for primary work when they begin teaching?

That may be due to the fact that primary work has been accented in their training; perhaps there is a greater demand for primary teachers and that has caused the greater number, but for some reason I do not know, and I wish you could tell me, there does seem to be that great preference for primary work.

Dr. DOBYNS. I think your first reason is the correct one—the training they have gotten in that work.

Dr. CROUTER. I think, too, there is an idea that primary work is easier—a great mistake.

Miss BILLINGS. I think the presence of a cadet teacher in a class interferes with advanced work. I do not like to send our cadet teachers to the upper classes.

Question 19. Should normal students be taught the sign language and the manual alphabet?

Mr. TAYLOR. Based on my own experience, I am glad I know the sign language; I wish I knew it better. But if I would take my choice between an orally trained teacher who does not know the sign language and an oral teacher who does, all other things being equal, I believe I would play safe and take the one who did not know it, one who knew neither the sign language nor the manual alphabet. In saying this I am guided in part by seeing teacher after teacher, myself among them, change from manual to oral work, and I have yet to see a teacher who has taught manually who could go into an oral class and teach it as well as one who has not taught manually. And there is that temptation to use that which might be of benefit.

Dr. FAX. I would like to ask an important question not on the list, one that has not received the attention it should receive. Is the presence of normal students in a classroom for observation a hindrance to pupils?

Mr. TAYLOR. I should say I have not noticed any hindrance in our own school, and I think that, on the whole, if the number is not too large, I would rather have one or two in the schoolroom than not.

There being no further question, the conference was declared closed.

On motion of Dr. Crouter, duly seconded and unanimously carried, the convention adjourned until 8 p. m.

#### EVENING SESSION.

The convention was called to order by President Gallaudet at 8 o'clock p. m.

Prof. E. J. Ward, of the bureau of social center development of the University of Wisconsin, delivered an address on the subject of "Education and democracy."

Defining the difference between the social-settlement idea and the social-center idea the speaker said that while social-settlement work under private auspices had done much for the poor communities in the city the time was rapidly coming when society was going to do for itself what the settlements had been doing for it. That back of the social-center work was the universal desire of human beings for acquaintance. That the fact that we are all human beings is of more importance than that we belong to any particular class or race or creed or family.

As an illustration, Mr. Ward told of standing one Sabbath morning at the window of his room on the fourth floor of a great city hotel. And as he swept in the view the deepest impression on his memory was made by the sight of two glittering crosses that surmounted the Church of the Holy Family. Glancing down, he saw throngs of devout worshipers crossing the threshold of the great church, and the thought was borne to him that it was time he should join the members of his own denomination passing into the near-by Presbyterian chapel. But before he left the window, looking out over the roofs of the city houses and the gilded crosses of the church, his eyes rested for an instant on the great gray walls of the State prison, and the question came to him, "Why is that great group of men clothed in stripes confined behind bars and not given a chance for a decent life? Why is society in such a disorganized state?" And as the question had come to him came the answer, "It is somehow connected with the fact that those people down there are all going their various ways, one group into the great Catholic church, and you, with your group, into the Presbyterian chapel, each expressing his devotion to the ideal as it is in him, each going a different way, but never applying that devotion to the ideal to the solving of those tremendous social problems of which that prison is a symbol."

Urging a more democratic mingling of all classes and referring to America as having been dubbed a huge pile of packing boxes not yet unpacked, Prof. Ward appealed to the educators present to use such influence and opportunities as might be theirs to help in the great work of unpacking these boxes.

Dr. Dobyns moved that the members show their appreciation by giving the speaker a rising vote of thanks.

On motion, unanimously carried, convention adjourned until Wednesday a. m.

## INDUSTRIAL SECTION.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12, 1911.

## PROGRAM, SEVENTH DAY.

9 a. m. Called to order by the president. Address: "Training for the boy," by Mr. F. R. Crane, principal of Dunn County School of Agriculture and Domestic Science, Menomonie, Wis.

10 a. m. Conference on "Dairying," directed by Mr. Duncan A. Cameron, Mississippi.

10.30 a. m. Conference on "Correlation," directed by Mr. Weston Jenkins, Alabama.

11 a. m. Conference on "Advisability of placing pupils in industrial establishments under certain conditions," directed by Mr. C. E. White, Kansas.

11.30 a. m. Conference on "The employment of machinery in the industrial departments of schools for the deaf," directed by Mr. F. M. Driggs, Utah.

12 m. Conference on "The training of industrial instructors of the deaf," directed by Mr. J. P. Walker, New Jersey.

12.30 p. m. Observation on "The International Industrial exhibit," Dr. F. D. Clarke, Michigan; Mr. S. N. Peterson, Minnesota.

8 p. m. Lawn fete.

Dr. Gallaudet called the meeting to order shortly after 9 o'clock.

The meeting was opened with prayer in both sign language and speech by Rev. Father Moeller, of Chicago.

President GALLAUDET. I understand a letter from Miss Rogers is in the hands of Miss Yale, and if it is her wish to read it to us I am sure the members of the convention would all enjoy hearing it.

Miss YALE. I received a letter from Dr. Rogers and although it is a personal letter I would like to read it to you.

NORTH BILLERICA, MASS, July 5, 1911.

MY DEAR MISS YALE: As you join your fellow workers in Delavan I shall wish I were among them. I still feel that I belong there. Had the convention been held as near as New York or Philadelphia I could probably have attended.

As I can not be present, may I commission you to give to the assembly a very cordial greeting and heartiest wishes that all may gain such inspiration from the meetings as will forward greatly the work in their several schools.

Of the principals I knew in the early days I think only Dr. Wilkinson and Dr. Gallaudet remain. Should they be present, please give them my kindly remembrance.

If Miss Emily Eddy, of the Delavan school, were still on earth, I should want you to see her and tell her how much I valued her early interest in speech teaching and the good work I saw in her schoolroom. She visited the little Chelmsford school and was among the earliest to take up the work.

HARRIET B. ROGERS.

Dr. TATE. Out of gratification for this letter, and in order that she may know we thank her from our hearts, I move that the convention express their appreciation by a rising vote.

This motion, having been seconded, was voted upon and carried, the members all rising.

Dr. TATE. I also move that the secretary be instructed to send a telegram of greeting to Miss Rogers.

Motion duly seconded, voted on, and carried.

Mr. LAURENS WALKER, of South Carolina. I move that the letter, leaving out the personal part, be made a part of the records of this meeting.

Motion seconded, voted upon, and carried unanimously.

Dr. GALLAUDET. Mr. Warren Robinson, of Delavan, will now take charge of this session of the convention.

Mr. ROBINSON. I dare not talk much from the platform, so I have asked Mr. White to introduce Mr. Crane for me.

Mr. C. E. WHITE. We have with us this morning a gentleman who represents a center of industrial education, not only of Wisconsin, but of the world, the northern part of our great Commonwealth, where is located the Stout Institute, popularly known as the Stout Manual Training School. He is well known throughout the State as one of the leaders in the industrial education movement in the great hearing world. During the past year he has been called upon to deliver addresses so frequently that we are indeed fortunate to have him here to-day to tell us some things which we are all interested in knowing. I introduce Mr. F. R. Crane, until recently principal of the Dunn County School of Agriculture and Domestic Science, who will speak to you upon "The training of the boy."<sup>1</sup>

The program for the morning was then opened with a splendid address on "The training for the boy," by F. R. Crane, principal of Dunn County School of Agriculture and Domestic Science, Menomonie, Wis. Mr. Crane made the statement that educators were more loath to change or improve their methods than any other class; that they were not always in the front ranks of reform movements. That the natural energy and restlessness of the boy should not be restrained but rather guided into proper channels. That society and the community and the parents of the boy are more to blame than the boy himself if he goes wrong. Mr. Crane expressed himself a believer in industrial training that possessed a market value. He said the theory of "art for art's sake" had no place in the industrial training of boys and girls in this practical age. He thought there was as much of beauty and culture in a perfect ear of corn or in a beautiful Percheron horse as could be sifted out of Greek and Latin roots. That an education that did not create the desire to go out in the world and do useful things was of little use.

The address was enthusiastically received by the members of the convention, and on the motion of Dr. Tate the audience expressed its appreciation of and accord with it by a rising vote of thanks for the speaker. Mr. Crane invited the members to visit the school at Menomonie, where he said they were training girls for home making and boys for the business of farming.

Following out the program, Mr. Duncan Cameron, of Mississippi, took charge of the conference on dairying.

#### CONFERENCE ON DAIRYING.

Directed by Mr. DUNCAN CAMERON, of Mississippi.

1. Is dairying a profitable occupation for the deaf?
2. Are there many successful deaf dairymen in the United States?
3. In what parts of the country would you consider dairying especially profitable?
4. What special advantages does dairying offer as an occupation? (a) Can you name any disadvantage?

<sup>1</sup> Mr. Crane's address is printed in full in the American Annals of the Deaf for September, 1911, Vol. LVI, No. 4.



5. What do you teach the boys of practical dairy work? (a) In the barn?  
(b) In the milk room?
6. On what dairy subjects do you give short practical talks from time to time?
7. Do your boys read dairy papers?
8. How do you manage to keep your boys interested in dairying?
9. Do your boys expect to become dairymen when they leave school?
10. What difficulties do you have in carrying on the dairy work as a branch of the industrial department?
11. In what ways can dairy pupils be given considerable practical information on questions connected with general farming?
12. What is the estimated average cost per month of maintaining the dairying department in the Mississippi school?
13. What breeds of dairy cattle would you have in a school that run a dairy department?
14. Does it pay to raise calves in schools where milk can hardly be spared?
15. What precautions should be taken to produce sanitary milk?
16. What kind of a milk pail do you use?
17. What are the causes of bad flavors in milk?
18. Would you recommend the use of a silo for such schools that have necessary land to produce crops to fill it?
19. Is it right to feed corn ensilage to the cows before or while they are milking?
20. Should the dairy pupils be bright and healthy? Why?
21. What diseases are carried in milk?
22. How do the germs of diseases enter milk?
23. What methods are used to keep bacteria out of milk?

Mr. DUNCAN CAMERON:

1. Is dairying a profitable occupation for the deaf?

Yes; dairying is a profitable occupation for the deaf who have been trained for the work.

2. Are there many successful deaf dairymen in the United States?

Yes; especially in this State. There is a deaf man in Minnesota who is doing a splendid dairy business. He has hundreds of customers. In the South some deaf dairymen ship cream to ice-cream factories and to large cities.

3. In what parts of the country would you consider dairying especially profitable?

In the South. Milk, cream, and butter sell higher than in any other part of the country, though it is still profitable anywhere when the business is properly managed. Other advantages in the South are the long grazing season, and less necessity for expensive shelter like that needed in colder parts of the country.

4. (a) What special advantages does dairying offer as an occupation?

Dairying offers the deaf some advantages. They can become independent; they can be sure of earning a living; they will mingle with business men, bankers, and others; and they may come to own considerable property.

- (b) Can you mention any disadvantages?

Dairying has some disadvantages. The work is very confining; the early rising, too, is a disadvantage.

5. What do you teach the boys of practical dairy work? (a) In the barn?  
(b) In the milk room?

(a) The boys are given some training in handling the herd; in milking the cows properly and regularly; in weighing the milk; in

raising the calves; in developing the heifer; in feeding; in making up a balanced ration; and in keeping the barn and yard in a sanitary condition.

(b) In the milk room they are trained in operating the cream separator; in cooling the milk; in caring for the milk, cream, etc.; in butter making under farm conditions; in milk testing; in sterilizing the dairy utensils; and in all other work in the milk room.

6. On what dairy subjects do you give short practical talks from time to time?

Short practical talks are given from time to time, as opportunity offers, on feeds and feeding, farm crops, breeds of farm animals, care and management of live stock, farm dairying, milk bacteriology, veterinary science, and other subjects.

7. Do your boys read dairy papers?

Yes; they read some of the articles in Hoard's Dairyman, the Jersey Bulletin, and some southern farm papers.

8. How do you manage to keep your boys interested in dairying?

By telling them about leading dairymen in America and by calling their attention to good and poor points in cows. I also tell them about the record cows that give over 1,000 pounds of butter in one year, and other interesting facts about dairying.

9. Do your boys expect to become dairymen when they leave school?

Yes; they seem to be anxious to run dairy plants on their fathers' farms when they leave school.

10. What difficulties do you have in carrying on the dairy work as a branch of the industrial department?

Since the dairy work has to be done every day, morning and night, on Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays the same as any other day, the boys are kept rather closely confined. We must see that they have liberty to go to town at hours that do not interfere with school and other duties. We encourage the habit of quick action in the performance of the work to be done by allowing them to go when they have finished their tasks. Then they are free till supper time.

One difficulty is, some of the boys are baseball players. It is sometimes hard to arrange so that they can get their work done in time to take part in a match game. Sometimes our cows have a change of milkers, which is not a good practice.

11. In what ways can dairy pupils be given considerable practical information on questions connected with general farming?

By visiting model farms, where they can see pure-bred animals and modern farm machinery—and the dairymen can make a point of giving the boys as much general information as possible on subjects that come up in connection with farming.

12. What is the estimated average cost per month of maintaining the dairy department in the Mississippi school?

About \$145, including the salary and wages, pasturage, hay grown on our own meadow, and some soiling crops.

13. What breeds of cattle would you have in a school that runs a dairy department?

The Holstein or Ayrshire for a large quantity of milk, and the Jersey or Guernsey for butter and cream.

14. Does it pay to raise calves in schools where milk can hardly be spared?

It pays to raise calves from the best cows in the herd. No dairyman would sell his best cows; he wants to sell his poor cows and weed them out of the herd. So the only way to have a herd of heavy milkers is to raise good calves from the best cows. It pays to do so, and it will be cheaper in the long run to raise calves than to buy cows.

15. What precautions should be taken to produce sanitary milk?

Cows should be healthy and clean; the milkers should be healthy and clean; the stable should be kept properly ventilated and free from dust, whitewashed and made sanitary by cleanly methods; milk should be strained and cooled in a clean place; pails and cans should be scrupulously clean; they should be first rinsed with luke-warm water, then washed with a brush and hot water containing some good washing powder, then boiling water or steam should be used to sterilize them. Cows' udders should be washed with a clean sponge and wiped before milking. Small-top milking pails should be used.

16. What kind of a milk pail do you use?

We use the Gurler sanitary pail. It has a removable hoop under which is placed a layer of absorbent cotton between two thicknesses of absorbent gauze. The absorbent cotton is burned after each milking, but the gauze can be sterilized and used for a few days before it is thrown away or used for rags. The spout is provided with a removable cap. It is a sanitary milk pail and its use insures clean milk.

17. What are the causes of bad flavors in milk?

Bacteria, which enter milk in any of the following ways: From dust in dirt; from the hair of the cow; from the air; from hands, body, or clothing of persons handling milk; from dirty utensils; from impure water; from diseased cows; some flavors are absorbed when milk is exposed in places where strong-smelling substances, such as turnips and decayed vegetables, are kept; from strong-smelling food eaten by the cow; and by keeping milk at a too warm temperature. When milk is warm bacteria multiply more rapidly and their action on different constituents of milk produce bad flavor.

18. Would you recommend the use of a silo for such schools that have necessary land to produce crops to fill it?

Yes; it is a good plan to have a silo. Silage is the cheapest feed for the dairy cow.

19. Is it right to feed corn ensilage to the cows before or while they are milking?

No; it should not be fed to the cows while they are milking, because the odors of the silage will cause bad milk. The cows should not eat silage until after the milking is done.

20. Should the dairy pupils be bright and healthy? Why?

Yes; they should be bright, because they can learn better about the handling and care of cattle—they will realize the responsibility of their work more than the dull boys would. Diseased boys should not be allowed to take up dairying, because the germs of the disease will enter the milk from the body or clothing of milkers who have contagious or infectious diseases.

## 21. What diseases are carried in milk?

Typhoid fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria, tuberculosis, and certain other infectious diseases.

## 22. How do the germs of disease enter milk?

The germs of disease enter milk in dust laden with disease-producing bacteria; from the body or clothing of persons who have or who recently have had contagious or infectious diseases or who are caring for persons who have such diseases; from infected water used in washing or rinsing milking utensils; and from diseased cows, especially when the udder is diseased.

## 23. What methods are used to keep bacteria out of milk?

They are kept out by absolute cleanliness in all things surrounding the production and handling of milk. This will prevent the entrance of bacteria into milk. By keeping milk cold the growth of bacteria is checked. The lower the temperature the more their growth is prevented and the longer will milk keep sweet. By high temperature it will destroy bacterial life in milk. This is the principle of pasteurization.

## DISCUSSION.

Dr. CROUTER. How large is the dairy?

Mr. CAMERON. We have 32 head of cattle. We are milking 16; the rest are young heifers.

Dr. CROUTER. What is the average yield per day?

Mr. CAMERON. The average is 20 gallons a day. Sometimes it is as high as 36 gallons; sometimes as low as 15 gallons. The average is 20 gallons.

Dr. FAY. Do the same boys keep at work there the year around, or do they work a period and then change awhile, as recommended by the speaker this morning?

Mr. CAMERON. Sometimes they work through the year. The reason the same boys are kept is because the school is so small.

Mr. TILLINGHAST. What is the total time the boys put in in a day?

Mr. CAMERON. They get up in the morning and milk, which takes about one hour. In the afternoon they begin at 3 and are busy until about half-past 4. They average about three hours a day.

Dr. FAY. How long is the course in dairying in Mississippi?

Mr. CAMERON. As long as they like to stay. One boy wants to stay one year, another two or three years.

Mr. SCHORY. How long does it take them to learn it?

Mr. CAMERON. It depends on the mental ability. Some are faster and some slower. I can't set a time.

Mr. SCHORY. Can a student learn in one year?

Mr. CAMERON. Yes; if he is anxious to learn. If not, it takes two or three.

Dr. CLARKE. Does he find that the classmates of one of these dairy boys—the ones who sit next to him at the table, for instance—does he find that they object strongly to the dairy smell?

Mr. CAMERON. No; our dairy boys are very clean. They change their clothes after they come from work and take baths every day.

Dr. CLARKE. All their clothes?

Mr. CAMERON. We insist upon their changing clothes and taking a bath every day. They are healthier than the other boys.

Dr. CLARKE. We do very much the same thing. We make them change their clothes and insist they shall not wear the same shoes in the barn that they do in the schoolroom, and yet in classes where there are girls we have the complaint that there is the smell of cows. It discourages a dairy boy very much to have the girl he is sweet on tell him to sit a little farther off.

Mr. CAMERON. We haven't had that trouble.

Mr. MONTAGUE. How much of the dining-room refuse is it advisable to feed to the cows—potato peelings, etc.? Would you draw the line at parings?

Mr. CAMERON. I would not give any refuse to the cows. It is best to give clean feed, such as bran, etc.

Discussion following conference declared closed.

Dr. Dobyns made the announcement that the lawn fête of the evening would be opened with the appearance on the grounds of Supt. Walker, who would be conveyed in an automobile from the sanitarium to the grounds that he might look upon the faces of his friends, although he would be unable to shake hands with them. The announcement was received with applause by the members of the convention.

#### CONFERENCE ON CORRELATION OF THE LITERARY AND INDUSTRIAL WORK.

Directed by Mr. WESTON JENKINS, Alabama.

1. Should the aim of our schools in their manual and industrial training be primarily to turn out workmen skilled in particular trades, or to develop general mechanical skill and to stimulate mental alertness?

2. Is not the training in mechanical skill generally begun later than is desirable to secure best results?

3. Is it desirable and is it practicable—without injuring their prospective earning capacity—to give our pupils some knowledge of different kinds of mechanical work, instead of training each one to one trade only?

4. In what ways may cooperation between the work of the industrial and of the literary departments be promoted?

5. Would not visits of an industrial class with the instructor to places where their shop processes may be seen in operation under commercial conditions be profitable? How far might such visits yield results not otherwise to be had?

6. Considering the questions of cost and of quantity as part of vocational training, how may different phases of institution life be made to contribute to the pupils' education in this direction? For example, food supply and preparation, furniture, fuel, lights, etc.

7. Could the classroom work in geography be advantageously modified by taking as points of departure the materials used in the workshops; their places of origin, method of production, transportation, etc.?

8. Would it be advisable to make the study of arithmetic a means chiefly of familiarizing the pupil with the calculation of cost, measurement, etc., involved in the industrial work of the school?

9. How may the vocabulary of the trades, so far as it is a part of the common speech, be more thoroughly and systematically taught to all the pupils?

10. If the adoption of such flexible methods of teaching as suggested above should involve the sacrifice of some less practical work (e. g., cube root), would the divergence of the course from that of the public schools be a serious objection?

11. If such interlocking of classroom studies with industrial work should be established, should the course be standardized by printed manuals or should each teacher prepare lessons to fit the immediate actual work of the class?

12. How may books, pictures, models, etc., best be used in extending the pupil's knowledge of, and interest in, what he works in?

13. How may the difficulty of classifying pupils for work in both departments best be overcome when some of the best workers in one department rank low in the other?



14. Is any particular arrangement of hours—e. g., by the "departmental" plan—more favorable than others for the interchange or work—literary and industrial?

15. An industrial instructor may be efficient in training boys to a trade, but not capable of doing much on the literary side. How may his deficiency best be supplemented?

16. Irrespective of any economic value, is it not worth while for its intellectual effect to give rudimentary instruction in as many as possible of the manual occupations practiced in the institution—all to be connected with school-room instruction?

17. How may such work be made attractive to the pupils?

18. What is the relative value to a youth, on the one hand, of the general dexterity and adaptiveness resulting from manual training, and on the other, of intensive training—in his school life—to a given trade?

19. How far may free-hand drawing be considered as a preparation for and an aid to industrial training?

20. Does the narrow range of the work of the modern mechanic call for a more narrow and intense preliminary training or for one of more general cultivation of the hand and brain?

Mr. JENKINS. The peculiar thing about the half hour we are entering upon is that it has just 30 minutes, perhaps less. The consideration of these questions ought to take an hour at least. I had the impression when I made them out that they were to be answered by others, for they are the things which have puzzled me. I do not know the answers myself, and I shall not have time to learn from those who do know. The questions may suggest something to you, some difficulties you have found, and you may be interested in comparing your failures and solutions of them with the failures or solutions of others.

Question 1. Should the aim of our schools in their manual and industrial training be primarily to turn out workmen skilled in particular trades, or to develop general mechanical skill and to stimulate mental alertness?

Both. General skill is the soul and the trade knowledge is the body. The body without the soul is worthless; the soul, not inhabiting the body, while it is of a higher nature, is of little use for this world.

Question 2. Is not the training in mechanical skill generally begun later than desirable to secure best results?

When I wrote that I thought yes. Since coming here and seeing how the sloyd system has been introduced, I say no. You have seen advanced artisans at work.

Question 3. Is it desirable and is it practicable—without injuring their earning capacity—to give our pupils some knowledge of different kinds of mechanical work, instead of training each one to the trade only?

In my opinion, yes. As the Postum man says, "There's a reason," but there is not time to consider what it is.

Question 4. In what ways may cooperation between the work of the industrial and of the literary departments be promoted?

I have thought out one or two. You can each tell your own case better than I could suggest.

Question 5. Would not visits of an industrial class, with the instructor, to places where their shop processes may be seen in operation under commercial conditions be profitable? How far might such visits yield results not otherwise to be had?

Judging from my own experience, I would say yes to the first part of the question. If you try, you will find out.

Question 6. Considering the questions of cost and of quantity as part of vocational training, how may different phases of institution life be made to contribute to the pupil's education in this direction? For example, food supply and preparation, furniture, fuel, lights, etc.

Well, I have thought much can be done in that way with advantage. I think that is something we have rather overlooked. The question of "What shall we eat, what shall we drink, and wherewithal shall we be clothed," is one with which we are somewhat concerned in after life. Can not we make it a part of their education?

Question 7. Could the classroom work in geography be advantageously modified by taking as points of departure the materials used in the workshops, their place of origin, method of production, transportation, etc.?

In my opinion, yes. I intend to answer that question a little more in detail in another connection.

Question 8. Would it be advisable to make the study of arithmetic a means chiefly of familiarizing the pupil with the calculation of cost, measurement, etc., involved in the industrial work of the school?

Again, in my opinion, and judging from the experience I have had, yes; and if there is time I shall say more on it later.

Question 9. How may the vocabulary of the trades, so far as it is a part of the common speech, be more thoroughly and systematically taught to all the pupils?

You all know better than I do. The time was when that subject was much neglected.

Question 10. If the adoption of such flexible methods of teaching as suggested above should involve the sacrifice of some less practical work (e. g., cube root), would the divergence of the course from that of the public schools be a serious objection?

Well, the form of the question shows you what I think. I am not sure I am right. You have your own opinion, which may differ from mine. This is merely a suggestion.

Question 11. If such interlocking of classroom studies with industrial work should be established, should the courses be standardized by printed manuals, or should each teacher prepare lessons to fit the immediate actual work of the class?

Well, from the point of view of the teacher it is a heap more fun to get up your own, and I think it is more helpful to the pupils. I think it brings the individuality of the teacher into play more. I have a mighty good chief who lets me work out my own ideas.

Question 12. How may books, pictures, models, etc., best be used in extending the pupil's knowledge of, and interest in, what he works in?

I think they can be used, and anyone working out a plan of correlation for himself will understand how best it can be done.

Question 13. How may the difficulty of classifying pupils for work in both departments best be overcome when some of the best workers in one department rank low in the other?

That is a difficult thing. Each one will have to work out the answer to it.

Question 14. Is any particular arrangement of hours, e. g., by the "departmental" plan more favorable than others for the interchange of work, literary and industrial?

There is another question of detail. It is like the fit of a coat. Each man has to go to his own tailor.

Question 15. An industrial instructor may be efficient in training boys to a trade, but not doing much on the literary side. How may his deficiency best be supplemented?

That is something again I will pass on. In what work I have done, that question has not arisen. It will arise in many schools. I wish some one would tell you.

Question 16. Irrespective of any economic value, is it not worth while for its intellectual effect to give rudimentary instruction in as many as possible of the manual occupations practiced in the institution, all to be connected with schoolroom instruction?

That is something on which I have an opinion. I think yes. You remember the story of—I think it was Thoreau—who loaned his copy of Plato to a farmer, and on returning it the old fellow remarked, "Well, I see that fellow has got hold of a good many of my ideas." Now, I hadn't discussed this subject with Mr. Crane or talked with him at all, but he has been advancing some of my ideas. It has often occurred to me, when I see a boy who has worked in the shoemaking or cabinetmaking department for, say, three years, that he ought to have gotten all he has gotten and more, too, in less time. As the speaker this morning said, after work becomes tedious it is no longer educative. And when the boy has to repeat that work, not with the motive of natural curiosity, but because he has to do it that particular afternoon, it is no longer educative. I do not see why a boy might not alternate in two or three different departments.

Question 17. How may such work be made attractive to the pupils?

I think I have already answered that.

Question 18. What is the relative value to a youth, on the one hand, of the general deftness and adaptiveness resulting from manual training, and, on the other, of intensive training in his school life to a given trade?

There is no definite answer to that, but I should rather emphasize the advantage of the general deftness. The pupils I have watched in their classes established under my direction when I had management of a school were given some instruction in free-hand drawing. We had a system I couldn't classify as kindergarten or industrial—just to give a pupil command of his muscles, perfect control, and command of the swing of the arm. I noticed that the boys and girls who did best in that were the most successful workmen in whatever trade they took up in afterlife.

Question 19. How far may free-hand drawing be considered as a preparation for and an aid in industrial training?

Well, a good deal further than I can stop to tell. I think it is a foundation for training in every department.

Question 20. Does the narrow range of the work of the modern mechanic call for a more narrow and intense preliminary training or for one of more general cultivation of the hand and brain?

It may seem paradoxical, but where the work of the mechanic is more highly specialized the need for a higher preparation for it is more than it was 20 years ago. It is perhaps worth thinking about.

I should like to propound another question. What have you people been doing in the way of correlating work? We have just been stumbling along without any guidance from the experience of others in one single industrial department. It is a broad department, and

it is a new one, in so far as our knowledge of it is concerned. This is agriculture. In this agricultural work, I suppose, we have the same idea as others—that what the student busies his hands with he occupies his brains with—he reads, writes, and thinks about it.

Mr. Jenkins then read the following paper:

#### CORRELATED TEACHING—INDUSTRIAL AND LITERARY.

The coordination of the industrial with the literary side of education means that what the student busies his hands with, that also he occupies his brains with—he will think about it, read about it, write about it.

There is nothing new about this theory; it is identical with that on which is based the work of our most successful schools—those of engineering, medicine, and all kinds of physical science. We all agree that we ought to coordinate our work, but we all find practical difficulties.

Perhaps the most helpful way of promoting the work at present is that we give each his own experience in this line, so far as he has gone.

In the Alabama school the practical study of agriculture was taken up in the spring of 1909.

At the suggestion of the principal a few of the older boys formed themselves into a "Farmers' Club." A plot of ground, about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  acres, belonging to the school, was placed at their disposal, and I undertook the direction of the work. We were fortunate in having the advice and supervision of an able scientific and practical farmer, the late Col. J. M. Thornton.

Our first season's efforts were directed solely to the cultivation of corn by the newer methods—a subject which was then being brought home forcibly to farmers all over the South. We were moderately successful only as regards the size of the crop we gathered, but, however it may have been with the maize, the seed of coordination fell "on good ground and brought forth an hundredfold." In my own class, which contained a majority of the members of the club, I had, with the principal's approval, discarded all textbooks in arithmetic, and, after some study of station bulletins and similar material, had prepared a series of problems covering most of the principles involved in the usual textbook work, but dealing exclusively with matters pertaining to the farmer's work and life. We learned to compare the gain in weight of thoroughbred and of scrub stock on the same treatment; the cost of milk production on a balanced and on an unbalanced ration; we estimated the cost of draining a field and the value of the increase in crops resulting from the same.

As supplemental to the study of geography, I prepared lessons in what I called commercial geography, giving whatever useful and interesting information I could as to our familiar crops, and in the case of plants familiar to us only as we use their products, describing the conditions and methods of their culture. I gave some notion of the volume and the value of each product, and traced out the channels of trade through which it reached its ultimate markets, showing, as far as I could, how these various materials enter into the life of the race, joining our own interests with those of the most remote peoples.

In addition to this work, which was confined to my own class, I had all the boys in the Farmers' Club meet one hour in the week—in school hours, by arrangement of the principal—for a lesson from an agricultural textbook.

In the spring of 1910 I found that the boys were anxious to get by practical experiment answers to a number of questions which had suggested themselves as a result of their last year's work: What other methods of cultivation can we try? How can we get our soil into better physical condition? What other crops can we raise to advantage?

I decided to divide our little farm into three fields and to adopt an approved rotation of crops—winter oats, followed the same year by cowpeas; corn; and cotton. Our results were encouraging. Evening meetings of the club were held biweekly, which were animated and instructive.

With the opening of the crop season of 1911 it was found that the number of boys wishing to join the Farmers' Club had so increased and the questions to be studied had become so numerous that the scope of the work had to be enlarged. Additional land was taken up, and more time was given to the work.

At the end of the school term the principal brought the subject before the board, and it was decided to recognize agriculture as one of the classroom studies and one of the industrial callings to be taught in the school. For the



next school year a course has been laid out on the following lines: The class in agriculture has been divided into two sections, each alternating this work with that of one of the other industrial departments. A room fitted with wall slates, desks, and other special apparatus is allotted for the indoor work of the class. It is a part of the plan that teacher and pupil alike are provided with notebook and pencil at all times when on duty, to jot down whatever is observed or is imparted, to be permanently recorded during classroom sessions. Whether a given period shall be employed in field work or in indoor work will depend on the weather and the pressure of work in one or the other department, but there is no danger of any lack of occupation.

A course of study has been marked out for the coming year, subject to some modification, which will touch upon the most important practical questions which come before the southern farmer. I will not go into the details, which would not be of general interest.

Now, as to the success of this "correlated" teaching—first, from a purely educational point of view. A wise teacher estimates the success of his teaching not so much by the absolute value of the facts he has imparted as by the degree to which he has managed to stimulate his pupil's mind, to awaken his interest, and to form in him the habit of independent thought.

Now, I have taught for many years most of the branches pursued in our common schools, using the approved methods.

It is only within the past two years that I have gradually evolved a partial and imperfect "correlated" way of teaching the one branch of agriculture.

In one week of last May I received three letters from former members of the Farmers' Club, now working on their home farms, expressing interest in the agricultural teaching they had at school and asking advice on points which have come up in their actual farm practice.

I am tempted to give an extract from one of these letters:

"I see you use the Williamson method of raising corn, if you haven't yet found some mistakes Mr. Williamson made in it. For instance, he advises the use of a long common or Georgia stock plow, which, if used in a cornfield close to the growing corn, breaks the roots of the plant, which reduces the plant's ability to get enough water to keep nice growth. Another point against this plow is that it takes five or six times going over to get the middle busted.

"That thing can be done away with if a spring-tooth harrow is used. This goes but 1 inch deep, and while the roots of the corn are a little farther down, goes over without harming them.

"This plow takes but two times to the row, and can be run close enough to the corn to almost touch it without any injury whatever to the plant.

"I am using this plow with good results."

I quote this not as showing that the writer has become a farm expert, but that, having studied agriculture on the "correlated" plan at school, he is using what he has thus learned as a means of learning more of the same in after life; that his talent is with the usurers, not buried in a napkin.

I should be convinced that my teaching of English history has been of equal educational value if I had occasionally received letters from former pupils giving their opinion of the relative accuracy, say, of Hume's and of Macaulay's estimate of the character of Charles I.

As to the practical, material value of "correlated" teaching, there can be, I think, no doubt whatever. If a young man starts in life regarding his gainful occupation as also a subject for constant and careful observation and reasoning and finding delight in every new bit of knowledge gained thereby, he is sure to become a master of his craft and to succeed financially as well as intellectually. Thus, too, the curse of Eden is lifted, or is transformed into a blessing; the sweat of the face accompanying the working of the brain is a condition of enjoyment, not of drudgery.

The principles of "correlation" are the same everywhere; the details of their application may vary indefinitely. Certainly I am not competent to advise generally as to such matters.

But I feel justified in saying that anyone responsible for the entire course of study in an institution will do wisely to apply himself, with such help as he can get, to working out his own system of correlation.

Mr. JENKINS. I think all of us were interested yesterday in the discussion of pupils below normal in intelligence. My chief, Mr. Johnson, of Alabama, is here, and I would like to have him tell the

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convention about a boy in our school, because the story is germane to the subject under discussion.

Mr. JOHNSON, of Alabama. This boy came to our school when 8 years old. The cause given for his deafness was that it was a birth-mark. He had peculiar abnormal facial development, bulging eyes, unsteady gait, leaned forward, hesitated to touch anything. He stayed a year, and was under the training of as good a manual teacher of the deaf as I ever saw. He didn't make any progress, or so little that at the end of the year I thought it necessary to exclude him. He stayed out a year. The following year his mother importuned me to take him back and try him again, and although I did not wish to do so I couldn't resist her pleadings. And this second year the boy awoke, took an interest in and progressed in everything. He stayed in the manual department eight years.

#### CONFERENCE ON THE ADVISABILITY OF PLACING PUPILS IN INDUSTRIAL ESTABLISHMENTS UNDER CERTAIN CONDITIONS.

Directed by Mr. C. E. WHITE, Kansas.

1. Would it be advisable, in place of increasing the expenditures for equipping the industrial department, to give less time to the shop and more to the schoolroom, and when the pupils have completed the literary course, place those of special aptitude as apprentices in industrial establishments and assign an instructor to visit them periodically at their work, and assist them to become skilled artisans and to acquire the vocabulary required in their trades?

2. What are some of the trades that the deaf could enter that they do not now have opportunity for in the State schools?

3. (a) What kind of a man should be selected to have general charge of placing apprentices and looking after them? (b) What should be his compensation?

4. Give an outline of the duties of the instructor.

5. Would it be advisable to establish a correspondence course with apprentices in connection with the visits of the instructor who had placed them?

6. While the instructor is looking after these apprentices, should they still be considered as under the direction of the school?

7. When should real trade instruction begin?

8. What about compensation for apprentices and a certificate showing the exact standing of the workman when his apprenticeship is finished?

9. What benefit may be derived from learning a trade that is never followed after leaving school?

10. What is the best remedy for the boy who is constantly wishing to change his trade?

11. What are some of the most important trades that can be successfully taught at a State school?

12. How far do the deaf in adult life follow the trades and pursuits they have been taught in the institutions?

13. To what extent has their industrial education been of value to them in facilitating their acquisition of a means of livelihood?

14. How far has it increased their wealth-producing power to the States?

15. What about horticulture as a trade to be taught in all State schools for the deaf?

Mr. WHITE. Our worthy chairman has handed me a copy of the Proceedings of the Seventh Meeting of the World's Congress of the Deaf, and I am going to ask your permission to read a few paragraphs from an address by Mr. Olof Hanson, of Seattle, who is now president of the National Association of the Deaf. My reason for asking this permission is that the first eight questions on the papers which have just been distributed are founded upon the remarks of Mr. Hanson in this article.

Real trades instruction should begin after the school course is completed. A few trades can be taught at school through a postgraduate course. But I think the schools should go further, and by keeping in touch with the large factories might apprentice the pupils and start them on such careers as are best suited to them.

There should be a traveling instructor who would go among the factories and look after the apprentices, and the literary or technical instruction connected with the work should be carried on through a systematic course of correspondence. The apprentice should serve without compensation, at least part of the time, and during the apprenticeship should still be under the direction of the school. On completing the course a certificate should be given stating the exact standing of the workman, and it should be given only for merit, so that in time the certificate would be of recognized value in seeking employment.

Such an instructor, being a State officer, would command more attention and be in a far better position to secure suitable positions for the deaf than the deaf themselves, or their friends. It goes without saying that he should be a man of tact and common sense, and that he should be paid a salary equal to that of a good teacher.

The plan proposed need not cost the schools any more than the present system. The only expense would be for the instructor who would take the place of several trade instructors. It would give the pupils a much wider range of occupation than the trades taught at school, for, as is known, only a small portion of the deaf actually follow the trades learned at school.

In this way I believe many deaf might be placed in positions which they could fill with credit to themselves and satisfaction to their employers. It would prevent many attempting occupations for which they are not fitted and changing from one to another. It would give those possessing proper qualifications a chance to enter the right field, which they might never have otherwise.

#### The first eight questions on the paper, as follows:

Question 1. Would it be advisable, in place of increasing the expenditures for equipping the industrial department, to give less time to the shop and more to the schoolroom, and when the pupils have completed the literary course place those of special aptitude as apprentices in industrial establishments and assign an instructor to visit them periodically at their work and assist them to become skilled artisans and to acquire the vocabulary required in their trades?

Question 2. What are some of the trades that the deaf could enter that they do not now have opportunity for in the State schools?

Question 3. (a) What kind of a man should be selected to have general charge of placing apprentices and looking after them? (b) What should be his compensation?

Question 4. Give an outline of the duties of the instructor.

Question 5. Would it be advisable to establish a correspondence course with apprentices in connection with the visits of the instructor who had placed them?

Question 6. While the instructor is looking after these apprentices, should they still be considered as under the direction of the school?

Question 7. When should real trade instruction begin?

Question 8. What about compensation for apprentices and a certificate showing the exact standing of the workman when his apprenticeship is finished?

These eight questions are founded on these remarks of Mr. Hanson. Holding him in as high regard as we all do, it seems it would take a good deal of courage on my part to take issue with him, but my experience having been in agricultural States and in schools where the tendency of the pupils is to go to cities without influence from the institutions, I must differ with Mr. Hanson. It seems to me that all the influence of the management of the schools should be directed toward getting the pupils to the farms. The graduates of our schools are all anxious to become teachers, and if not accepted as teachers in the schools, the next thing they seem to think is open for them is work in factories in the cities. Now, the fact has been stated this morning by Prof. Crane that 95 per cent do not finish the course of study required of a graduate of our schools, and it seems to be

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that very thing in itself would be sufficient reason why we should not undertake such a proposition as Mr. Hanson has outlined. One may easily conceive of conditions where trade instruction might be of some benefit in a city. For instance, in a small school not properly equipped, where two or three boys might wish to learn, say, the printer's trade, and the facilities of the school were not adequate for doing so, then it would be advisable to give them an opportunity to learn the printer's trade in the town where the school is located, but otherwise I would not favor the proposition outlined.

These remarks are intended to cover the first eight questions. Taking up the other questions, I have selected to answer them for me experts much better able than I am. I shall ask Dr. Tate to answer question 9.

Question 9. What benefit may be derived from learning a trade that is never followed after leaving school?

Dr. TATE. In my mind that has but a brief answer. It is a notable fact that very few of the pupils who leave our schools follow the trades they learn in school. One other notable fact is that our industries do not aim to teach a trade, but to develop children along industrial lines, so that when they shall leave school and their environments suggest something other than they have learned in school they can easily take that up and succeed at it—at something different from what they were taught in school. We are all getting hold of the idea that industrial work is not so much learning a trade as industrial training. The fact that very few of our children follow the trades learned in school emphasizes this. To this end I have often let boys learn more than one trade, as they are able to do it. Just as soon as a boy has a working knowledge of the trade that he has been at I let him go to another. I want him to learn to do reasonably well just as many things as he can. And here is a chance for a mistake, and a serious one, for nearly every boy or girl wants to change his or her trade after the novelty wears off. A boy must go in and show he has made substantial progress before I allow him to change. I do not let him jump from one thing to another. He is not allowed to change the trade selected for him until he has, in a way, perfected himself in that trade; then he can learn any one of the others of his own selection. And the more he learns in school the better he will be prepared, when he leaves, to make a living. I think we are always to keep our eyes open to the fact that, in all probability, after leaving school he may not do the particular thing we have taught him in school.

Mr. WHITE. I shall ask Mr. Stewart, of Oklahoma, to answer question 10.

Question 10. What is the best remedy for the boy who is constantly wishing to change his trade?

Mr. STEWART. Considering the question literally, I would have little sympathy with the boy wanting to change his trade and would be rather arbitrary. But back of that, in assigning children to their trades, I think the heads of schools ought to be careful. The pupil not only ought to be consulted, but the parents also, and something learned of the home environment and the possible afterlife of the child. If, after all this care, we find some mistake has been made in the assignment of a child to a trade, in such a case I think the child

should be transferred to the department he prefers. If, after proper investigation, it is concluded no transfer should be made, I believe persuasion and perhaps letters from the parents may lead the pupil to be satisfied to remain in the trade he has entered.

Question 11. What are some of the most important trades that can be successfully taught at a State school?

Mr. WHITE. I shall ask Mr. Gillett, of Illinois, to answer that.

Mr. GILLETT. I can tell what we have in our school. In the printing department we have a typesetting machine. This summer we are going to install another new linotype machine, the legislature having made an appropriation of \$4,000. This machine is put in not because we desire to get outside work, but to get the boys familiar with the machine. Two of the boy graduates of our school are manipulating these machines—one in Chicago handles a linotype, another in Peoria, a monotype. I think for the deaf the linotype is better, because it is more generally used and the monotype is a little difficult to learn.

I have a shoe shop. Within the last three years we installed a repairing machine. We have not a great deal of machinery in this shop, because I have felt it desirable for our boys to learn to make shoes from start to finish, which is not done in shoe factories. Most of the boys in our shoe shop live in small towns, where they will probably start up small shops of their own after leaving school and will not need machinery.

We also teach cabinetmaking. Specimens of our work are on exhibition in the farther school building here. This work is not quite up to some we have made before, which was sold last winter.

We have, too, a painting department. I think it is a good trade, but it is so easily learned the boy can almost pick it up after leaving school.

I have felt for quite a while I would like to put in a tailoring department. Unfortunately, we are obliged to buy our clothes from the State penitentiary, and it is very unsatisfactory. We have a provision in Illinois for clothing indigent children and charging the account to the counties from which they come, providing we have certificates from the authorities of these counties. Until a few months ago we purchased satisfactory clothing in our town, but since we have been obliged to buy from the penitentiary we have not been satisfied, and for that reason I should like to open up a tailoring department of our own.

We also have baking taught. The boys like that very well indeed. They can get work very easily, for good, sober, temperate bakers are in demand. I understand that many of that trade are intemperate.

We also do some gardening. We have only 150 acres all told, but we have enough. I think that farming would be a most excellent occupation for deaf boys.

The girls, as in all schools for the deaf, are taught housework and sewing. Some of their work is on exhibition here.

Question 12. How far do the deaf, in adult life, follow the trades and pursuits they have been taught in institutions?

Mr. WHITE. I have been advised that Mr. N. F. Walker was posted on this subject, but as I do not see him here I shall ask Dr. Fay to answer that question.



Dr. FAY. It has been very difficult to get statistics on that point. We have not thus far gotten any thorough statistics. I could only give my impression that very often they do not follow the trades and pursuits taught in the institution.

Question 13. To what extent has their industrial education been of value to them in facilitating their acquisition of a means of livelihood?

Mr. WHITE. Dr. Argo will answer that for us.

Dr. ARGO. I hardly think it worth while to take up the time of the convention. We would unanimously vote that industrial education—not particularly a trade—has been very helpful to the deaf, facilitating their success in life. I think it is the complement of the literary work, in some cases equal to it, and simply rounds out the pupil's life in the school.

I have heard one thing here this morning that strikes me as a little peculiar. We have never believed any school could teach a trade thoroughly. I think we make very fair apprentices, but that we could teach a trade in a period of 2 or 2½ hours a day in a pupil's life, even though he began early, does not strike me as a fact. And that a boy could learn two trades is rather wonderful. I wish we had the time, but if anyone can teach me how to teach one trade thoroughly in the time we have in school I shall be glad.

Mr. CLARKE, of Washington. Isn't that the answer to the question that has been puzzling us so much, "Why do not the pupils follow the trades learned at school?" Because they haven't learned any. I have been putting a great deal of time to my industrial department and make it a requirement of graduation that pupils be able to go out and earn \$2.50 per day at the trade studied, and I have been able to place every graduate of my school at the trade learned. They are all at work now at the trades learned.

Dr. TATE. As a matter of fact, we do not expect to make finished workmen of our boys. The old idea of seven or eight years' apprenticeship is passed. The amount of machinery used in most trades is such that if a boy has a fairly thorough knowledge of the mechanical construction of machinery in general he can soon learn whatever more is necessary in any particular line. It doesn't take the time it used to in any trade. As an actual experience I have had a number of boys get what I call a working knowledge of a trade, and then go on and get a working knowledge of another trade. Why should it take a boy four or five years to learn all the processes of baking? He can do it in less time, and if he does and moves on in some other direction all the better. The more we can teach our boys to do fairly well I think the better. Our boys are ingenious and capable of getting a working knowledge of more than one trade during their school life. That is my observation.

Question 14. How far has it increased their wealth-producing power to the States?

Mr. WHITE. I shall call on Mr. Jones, of Ohio, to answer that.

Mr. JONES. Before I answer that question I want to agree with Dr. Tate in believing that a great many boys can become quite well trained for printing or cabinet work, or any other trade, and spend the last year, say in house painting, and become quite expert painters. We are doing that to such an extent that we have not hired any



painters except deaf boys for 8 or 10 years. Last year they painted the new hospital, under the direction of the architect, and he said it was the best job of enamel painting he had ever seen. These boys go out and get union wages and are in great demand. Also, baking is a trade used in connection with another, and very successfully.

The girls who have been sewing two hours a day for five or six years spend the last two years in the cooking school. They have learned to be fair seamstresses and usually learn a good deal about cooking.

Now, a brief answer to question 14: In the same proportion as any other person who is self-supporting, I do not know of any able-bodied deaf people with normal minds who are not self-supporting.

Mr. WHITE. I think Mr. Gillett did not mention horticulture, so I shall ask Mr. Tillinghast to answer question 15.

Question 15. What about horticulture as a trade to be taught in all State schools for the deaf?

Mr. TILLINGHAST. I think the speaker this morning emphasized a very important point when he said we should adapt our trade teaching to the locality in which the school stands. I think horticulture is an excellent occupation for the deaf. It gives opportunity for skill and intelligence, and in States where it is one of the leading industries I think it ought to be taught. I do not think it should be taught in all States. In Oregon everybody raises some fruit. Out there, as you know, they raise apples to ship to all the cities of Europe; also cherries, strawberries, and prunes. They are also raising raspberries and selling them to the canneries. Truly, fruit raising is a large industry in Oregon. We have a strawberry festival, then a raspberry festival, then a cherry fair, then an apple fair. The people get together and everybody talks about spraying and pruning, how to cultivate, and the best way of destroying the enemies of the fruit trees. I think all of the Pacific coast is interested in horticulture. When I took charge of our school there was a shoemaking department, and no boy had ever followed that trade after leaving school; consequently we are dropping that work and hope to do more work along the line of horticulture.

Mr. WHITE. In closing I wish to emphasize the fact that I consider the most important thing the managements of our various schools can do is to emphasize agriculture. Every other trade may become oversupplied, every other occupation may become crowded, but we can never have enough farmers. Therefore agriculture and kindred occupations present better openings to our young men than any other line of industrial work.

Dr. FAY. I should like to urge upon superintendents and principals the importance of keeping track of their pupils after leaving school, collecting statistics on their work, ascertaining if they are following the trades learned in school, and if not, why not. I think that would be very valuable in determining what are the best trades to be taught in schools. Various matters of that kind could easily be obtained by superintendents and principals. I have tried to obtain such statistics from the Census Office, but find it unsatisfactory.

Mr. DRIGGS. I have done exactly what Dr. Fay says, and I know what every graduate of our school is doing and the wages he is earning. We are fortunate, however, to be young in Utah, and have

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not had to trace back very far. I find it is a great incentive to those boys and girls who are in school when I tell them their names are going down in every biennial report, to be presented to the governor of the State of Utah. We find that one boy out of every three, whether printer, carpenter, or farmer in school, goes on the farm after leaving us, and we are doing something in horticulture and farming in the State of Utah.

Mr. WHITE. The laws of Nebraska require such a report, and in each biennial report of the superintendent will be found the occupations of the graduates of the institution.

#### CONFERENCE ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF MACHINERY IN THE INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENTS OF SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

Directed by Mr. FRANK M. DRIGGS, of Ogden, Utah.

1. Is the educative value of industrial training lessened by the use of machinery?
2. What are the advantages of having good machines in our industrial departments?
3. What about the danger of allowing deaf persons to use machinery?
4. Have not employers an exaggerated fear of the operation of machines by deaf people?
5. Does the use of machinery tend to discourage physical efforts by pupils?
6. What would be an ideal equipment for a carpenter shop?
7. What machinery is needed in an up-to-date shoe shop?
8. Do results justify the installation of linotype machines in our printing offices?
9. What new machines might be added to the equipment of our printing offices?
10. In the work of domestic science and art are there any machines which would facilitate the work?
11. What use can be made of machines in the barber shop?
12. Do results warrant a continuance of our industrial departments with expensive equipment of good machinery?

Mr. DRIGGS. You know machinery enables us to do things in a hurry. We shall try to do things that way this morning.

It has long been a question in my mind whether the teaching of trades is the proper thing in our institutions, whether it should not be industrial training or manual training and the teaching of actual trades dispensed with. You noticed, according to the most excellent address of Prof. Crane this morning, that it is not really trade instruction we need. In speaking of dairying, he mentioned the principles of education in dairying—that as the boy was mastering each educational principle the work was interesting and never drudgery. Immediately that industrial training becomes drudgery (I have it down here almost word for word as the speaker gave it, and yet I hadn't talked with him) it loses its educational value. If we are going to continue our industrial training as in our schools to-day we ought to train our boys with the very best machinery. Even if we have manual training, we ought to have the very best machinery. They have it in all the good manual-training shops of the country. It is the age of invention, the age of machinery and labor-saving devices. In all pursuits of life men are constantly trying to think out a scheme some way by means of which they will have a machine to enable them to do their work better, more quickly, and more effectively.

Take farming, for instance. Who ever thought or heard 10 years ago that one machine could be made to do the work it does to-day? Why, after the field is planted and grown, one machine goes out and pretty nearly reaps, thrashes, sacks the grain, and grinds it into flour, and bakes the bread. Take printing. Only a few years ago Ben Franklin had his little hand press printing his newspaper. To-day, looking into our printing offices, we see vast and complicated machinery. The paper is fed into huge presses from large rolls of almost endless length and comes out cut, folded, printed, counted, and almost delivered.

Take carpentry. How long would it have taken my grandfather, who was a good carpenter, to have built a house as compared with the carpenter of to-day? The carpenter of to-day will build 20 houses in the time it took my grandfather to build one. And I guess there is a great deal of educative as well as commercial value in building that many.

Take the industry of mining. We have one little mine in Utah where they have 20 steam shovels at work. A few years ago the miner was there with his pick, shovel, and wheelbarrow. It shows the trend of things to-day is to enable us to do more work more quickly and more satisfactorily. And in our industrial training the use of machinery is educative just so long as it will give to the pupil unsolved problems. I was particularly pleased this morning with the address of Prof. Crane. It struck me as just the right kind of stuff for all of us. I wish in all our industrial work we would have lessons of practical educational value rather than the constant making of tables or something the child is not interested in.

Now to answer these very few questions I have.

Question 1. Is the educative value of industrial training lessened by the use of machinery?

Industrial education loses its developing value when the pupils become mere machines. When the child has mastered the use of the machine, unless you give him some other problem with which to use it, the educative value is gone. Of course, then, in order to have it educative you must give him harder problems every day.

Question 2. What are the advantages of having good machines in our industrial departments?

It lessens the drudgery and enables us to do more, gives us greater power, gives us mastery over greater power than our own, gives us power to direct power. I don't know how many of you ever learned to ride a bicycle, but those of you who have know that when you had mastered it it was a pretty good thing. When a boy goes into the print shop and learns to use the press well he has mastered something. And whenever he has mastered one subject he looks around for another to master. You can see it is productive of growth.

Question 3. What about the danger of allowing deaf persons to use machinery?

I guess there is just as much danger, possibly a little more, than with the hearing boy and girl. There is danger for both, but if our deaf are to compete with the hearing in industrial work they must learn to use machinery, even though it is dangerous to do it.

Question 4. Have not employers an exaggerated fear of the operation of machines by deaf people?

Yes, I think they have. I have found men who would not employ the deaf. If deaf people sought employment from them they feared to let them run their machines because of their deafness. But the deaf man has to be "from Missouri"; he has to show them he can.

Question 5. Does the use of machinery tend to discourage physical effort by pupils?

Yes and no. The greater amount of work accomplished by the use of machinery gives fully as much physical effort, and I may say a sufficient effort.

Question 6. What would be an ideal equipment for a carpenter shop?

That is a question. Perhaps that ought to be answered according to the location of the school. Down in the Southern States, where they have lots of lumber, and in those States where they have timber, you will need more than in those localities where all lumber is surfaced and shipped in.

This is what we have in our school. I think it fairly representative: A band saw, and I will say it ought to be run by electrical power. Don't make the mistake of buying a 10 of 12 inch one, but a 36-inch one, big enough to saw anything. A variety wood-working machine, which will do some planing, some sawing, some boring, etc., and a great many other things, and do them well. I think there should be two turning lathes, a large one and a small one, and if the school is large there should be more. Then there should be a shaper, which is a small machine for making moldings for window frames, door frames, etc. Another machine we find of very great help which saves lots of muscular labor is a sandpapering machine. It costs only about \$40. A good grindstone is necessary, too. Both should be run by electricity.

Dr. DOBYS. Wouldn't you have a mortising machine?

Mr. DRIGGS. This shaper is a little on that order. I shouldn't unless it is a large shop. I know down in Mississippi and Arkansas they have three or four times as much machinery as we do. I expect they get their timber in the rough and have to plane it, so require more machinery.

Question 7. What machinery is needed in an up-to-date shoe shop?

Mr. DRIGGS. Mr. Montague, of West Virginia, will answer that for us. But first, I want to say for the benefit of the principals here that I think we ought to teach shoemaking. Down in the Kansas school they educated one of their young men and he went west to grow up with the country. He opened up a little shop in our town about 10 years ago and cobbled shoes. I think when he started out he had only a patching machine. To-day when you go into his shop you will find a Champion shoe-shop outfit. First, there is a machine to sew on soles. He tacks on the soles and puts the shoe in the machine and it sews the sole on. He ought also to have a nailing machine. In addition to that there are four or five different wheels on this machine with sandpaper on them. Well, our shoemaker takes his shoes and smooths off the edges of the sole, using different wheels. The next part of the machine is a burnishing machine



with cloth and brushes, so that while you wait your shoes are repaired and polished, and our deaf man takes the money.

This man owns his own home, which is worth about \$4,000. He drove up to the institution less than a month ago in a five-passenger automobile with his family. He has money in the bank. His hands are dirty, but he is a good fellow—good as gold—and a good citizen.

Now, if the gentleman from West Virginia has a better shoe shop I should like to hear from him.

Mr. MONTAGUE. I only wish to correct the statement that I said I had a better shoe shop than others. Mr. Dobyns is the one who said it was an excellent shoe shop. We have the Champion sewing machine in our shop. It also sews long seams on traces. It waxes the thread automatically when it sews. We also have a splitter and a creasing machine for making harness. I don't think a shoe shop is equipped at all unless it has machinery. Our board of control doesn't approve of much machinery, but they are now convinced of its advantage in the shoe shop.

Mr. JOHNSON. You might mention that the Champion machine costs about \$400, but that it can be bought on time. It is about 40 feet long.

Mr. DRIGGS. You can buy the machine without the stitching part at a cost of about \$150.

Question 8. Do results justify the installation of linotype machines in our printing offices?

I don't know what to say other than this, that in schools where they have a large attendance and where it is possible for these boys to go out into printing offices, the expense would be justified. I know there are several principals of institutions that are just about to install these machines—Mr. Gillett, of Illinois, and Dr. Argo, of Colorado, are going to have them. I think the expenditure of the money is justified by results.

Mr. TRAVIS. Not long ago I made the rounds of the printing offices in Indianapolis and inquired what they thought about learning to operate linotype machines, and this is what the foreman of one of the shops told me—and he was very emphatic in his assertion, too. He said they wouldn't have a man in their shop who wasn't a thorough printer before he came to use a linotype machine. Now, he may be wrong; I do not know about that, but that is what he said. And he said they were speaking with the wisdom of experience; that in Indianapolis, at the Winona Technical Institution, they educated hearing and deaf. Some of them had gone there to learn trades. And this foreman of this shop can't swear hard enough to justify his opinion of those fellows who want to learn the machine and had not been full-fledged printers before they went there. We can't hope to make full-fledged printers of our boys; we haven't the time; there are other trades which do not require the time. I understand that Dr. Crouter has turned out a number and they are working successfully on the linotype. That may be.

Mr. JONES. We put in a linotype machine last winter. Six boys have been operating it. Some of them are as good printers as deaf boys get to be. We offered an opportunity to ex-pupils who are printers to learn. One came and spent six weeks, then went out



and took a position at \$21 a week. There is no reason why the boys who use the linotype machine shouldn't be good printers, as they have had experience in case printing.

Mr. Cook. I know a linotype operator who is a deaf man, and he has worked on the machine for a number of years. I had an opportunity of asking the foreman how he was progressing, and he said he was giving good satisfaction. He said he was one of the best in the office and that he commands the highest wages of all his linotype operators.

Mr. Eddy. There are linotype schools in Boston, Chicago, and New Orleans where the deaf who can not receive instruction in their own schools can be trained, and several of the deaf have learned in these places.

Question 9. What new machines might be added to the equipment of our printing offices?

Some little time ago I was in Salt Lake City at the meeting of the Utah Development League, of which I am president, and our superintendent took me through his workshop. I found some ladies there working on the addressograph. I have learned that in most of the large department stores they have addressing machines. There is no reason why deaf boys and girls should not operate them.

The other day I was in Marshall Field's large store in Chicago and passed through the office department, where I saw as many as 50 girls using tabulating machines writing out their statements. There is no reason why half of those girls might not have been deaf girls. I think in all our printing offices we ought to have these machines. I do not see why we should not have the typewriter. We had one deaf girl in a class of three who learned to use the typewriter in our school secure a position and do well. There is a great deal of copying that might be done by the deaf. I do not know why they could not operate the mimeograph, the addressograph, and similar machines.

The time allowed for this conference having elapsed, the chairman called for the next number on the program, the conference on "The training of industrial instructors of the deaf."

Mr. Walker was not present, but his paper, with questions and solutions of same, had been sent in.

Owing to the lateness of the hour, Mr. Dobyns moved that Mr. Walker's paper be not read at this time, but duly incorporated in the proceedings. This motion was seconded, voted upon, and unanimously carried.

#### CONFERENCE ON THE TRAINING OF INDUSTRIAL INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF.

Directed by Mr. J. P. WALKER, New Jersey.

1. What shall be the physical requirement of one beginning to train as an industrial instructor of the deaf?
2. Shall the intellectual requirements be the same as those for one beginning training for the academic work of a school?
3. Would it be well to have an assistant at a nominal salary with each of the instructors in a school, preparing himself for the work?
4. Would it be desirable to have a section established in some institute or technical school for the training of these industrial instructors?
5. Should the industrial instructor have a thorough knowledge of oral methods of instruction?

6. Should he have a knowledge of signs?
7. Should an ability to make and sharpen the tools and implements used in the trade be a part of the teacher's training?
8. Should the instructor have a knowledge of the character and qualities of all materials used in the workroom, of their value and of the method of their manufacture?
9. Should the instructor have a thorough training in the methods of the academic department as well as in the trade he is to teach?
10. Should a study of the industrial conditions in the State be a part of the training of the industrial instructor in the school for the deaf?
11. Should it be a condition precedent to his training that he use no tobacco or stimulants of any kind?

1. Of all the requisites of a good teacher, there is no one thing that counts for more than a good personality. As factors in this personality, the most important ones are good physical health and strength, and, I may add, a certain amount of grace and beauty. These are of no less importance to the one training as an industrial instructor than to the one preparing as a teacher in the academic department, and no one can hope, with all the training that can be given, to succeed in the work who is not possessed of a reasonable share of these qualities. They may be regarded, I think, as first essentials.

2. There was a time, and it is well within the memory of many of us, when a mere ability to handle the tools of the trade in ever so slovenly a way was all-sufficient. The instructor was obtained at the lowest possible wage, and his place was simply an aside and one regarded as of but little importance. That day has passed and the handwork is now regarded as of paramount importance. The best abilities only are wanted and the best salaries are paid. The man or woman training for the industrial department undoubtedly should be possessed of the highest intellectual attainments. A college or university course would afford the ideal preparation in this regard.

3. As a link in the chain of preparation to fill vacancies in the corps of teachers in an industrial department, there could be nothing better than a year or two spent as an understudy to an instructor whose line of work is to be taken up. There are a dozen material points in which the teaching of deaf children differs from that of the hearing. These could be noted and mastered, and a practical knowledge of the detail of the work could be obtained that scarce could be gotten in any other way, to say nothing of the great benefit derived by the class from the fact of its having two teachers.

4. As the whole aim of the technical school or institute is to turn out efficient teachers who are efficient workmen as well, perhaps little could be done in addition in such a school in the direction of training instructors especially intended for schools for the deaf. Probably no better preparation could be made than to take the usual course in such a school and then to supplement it, as I have suggested, by a term or two as assistant to the instructor of a section in a school for the deaf.

5. The teaching of language, of spoken language when possible, is one of the bounden duties of everyone connected with a school for deaf children. The work of the industrial instructor affords him an especially wide field for this species of instruction. It is of the greatest value to him and to his class that he should know the methods by which speech and lip reading are taught, and of the greatest importance that he should apply this knowledge at every opportunity.

6. Whatever our conclusions in regard to the use of signs in the academic work, it would seem at times almost impossible to get along without a little gesture in the workroom. In "showing" the child, especially the less bright child, the uses of a sign occasionally appears to make the idea clear when nothing else will. It probably would do no harm, to say the least, for the instructor to have a knowledge of the sign language.

7. The grasp of an industrial instructor upon his work certainly would not be complete without an ability to keep his tools in perfect order. While the making of the tools might constitute an entirely different branch, he at least should have some knowledge of the processes of their manufacture, and an ability to make them would add, in so much, to his fitness and efficiency.

8. A careful study of the materials used in his work, their values and their various qualities, necessarily must be a part of the training of the instructor in the trade department.

9. A familiarity not only with oral methods but with every method of imparting instruction of any kind must needs be of value, and the most valuable in-

structor of all in the trade department would be one who had been an efficient teacher in the academic department, and who had then taken the other training necessary to fit him as a teacher of the trade.

10. Such a study would enable him to specialize in such a way as to make his pupils more fit to meet the exact conditions they will have to face when they go from school, and would, of course, enhance the value of his work.

11. There are probably no two things that effect more adversely the personality of the teacher than tobacco and intoxicants. The latter, especially, has been found to be such a detriment to the workman that employers now seldom will take on a man whom they know to be a drinker. In a position where example goes for so much it is especially important that the man or woman who looks forward to the work of teaching in an industrial department, or indeed in any department, should be free from habits that tend so strongly to the injury of the growing child. It would be most safe to say that the industrial instructor would have an infinitely better hope of success who began his training untrammelled by such vices.

The chairman then passed on to "Observation on the international industrial exhibit," Dr. F. D. Clarke, of Michigan, being the first speaker.

#### OBSERVATIONS ON THE INTERNATIONAL INDUSTRIAL EXHIBIT.

Dr. CLARKE. Mr. Chairman, brother and sister teachers, if I understand the duty assigned me it was a sort of critique of the exhibitions here; to praise what deserved praise and to pass over what did not.

It is rather a thankless office and it seems to me that such a thing should have been done early in the convention so you might have had a chance to see these exhibits and see whether what was said was just or otherwise.

Dr. DOBYNS. We thought they would appreciate the criticism better after having seen them.

Dr. CLARKE. I accept the explanation.

The first thing we come to is the Kansas exhibit, and for a school as old as the Kansas school it is disappointing. It has the same fault that many of the other exhibits show, a lack of finish. Now, the finish on any piece of work is as necessary as the material of which it is made; in fact, probably more so in a commercial sense.

The next was an exhibit of an entirely different kind, that of the Illinois school, an exhibit from which any teacher in any school can get suggestions and useful information to carry home with him; an exhibit which shows that they have done not only conscientious educational work along this line in their Illinois school, but that they have done a very great deal and great variety of it. In fact, no exhibit here, with possibly the exhibit of the Wisconsin school, has the variety of that of the Illinois school.

Beginning at the very first, their outline drawing, first, second, third, fourth, and fifth year work, the silhouettes, cutting out, cross-stitch work, etc., are all fine. Perhaps the simple parts have been carried further than I desire. I don't think I would want fourth or fifth grade pupils to do much of that work. You can see a design running through the whole exhibit. The block drawing is excellent, not only in technique but in that it stimulates details. Their basket work and coloring is the finest I ever saw. The constructive part of the basket is not inferior, but the coloring pleased my eye. While it once and dropped it; yet it had evidently been well taught. Their

platinotypes were as good as any made by professionals. There is one use of photography they have made in that school very interesting to me; that is that every year they take a picture of every class, and these pictures are all marked and labeled and bound in albums, which they preserve. In future years they will be very interesting and valuable.

You all have noticed the splendid display of rugs, rugs made largely from rags and pieces of cloth torn up into rags for the purpose of weaving, and also the number of designs. One of the rugs I saw on the loom is as artistic as anything I ever saw anywhere. They tell me this is absolutely a new trade. They only began when school opened last fall. Another interesting thing is that the boys in the cabinet shop have made the looms on which many of these rugs are made.

The shoe-shop exhibit was good, but we have had shoemaking now in schools for the deaf since 1825 and it is about time we were turning out some good work.

I wish our English friend quoted the other day would take a look here and see whether we teach mechanical drawing or not.

Altogether, I think the Illinois exhibit is one the Illinois school may justly be complimented on, and I am going to compliment Miss Upham instead of Mr. Gillett, for I think she did nine-tenths of the work.

I prefer to let the Michigan exhibit speak for itself. I will simply say that the next will be better.

Mr. GILLETT. Miss Upham, who is competent to judge, is very much pleased with the Michigan exhibit and thinks it is very good.

Dr. CLARKE. The Kendall school exhibit has some good work. It is very evident from the exhibit that this particular branch has not been followed very long in that school. I noticed one thing there that I saw in the work of no other institution, and I think is not taught regularly in any school for the deaf. That is the caning of chair seats with rattan.

This finished the upstairs. As I went into the basement my attention was attracted by an exhibit that struck me as remarkably good, although not covering a large range of subjects. I noticed particularly a story told in pictures. I understand that there were only four pupils that exhibited. There was the work of each of the four there, telling the story of Little Red Riding Hood and the Three Bears. These deserve a great deal of praise, and their other work does also.

In the Virginia exhibit the china painting struck me as very good indeed. I should like to know whether they do their own firing? There was also some map drawing in that exhibit, and while I, as a teacher, hardly think the amount of work put on those maps was justified, still they were as fine as any lithograph map, and, as far as I could tell from memory, as correct.

The exhibit from India ought to be peculiarly interesting to the ladies. There were two little frocks there that seemed to have the most and finest handiwork of anything I ever saw of that work. There were also toys made by the children at the school, unfortunately smashed in the shipping, and you couldn't tell much about them.



The Gallaudet College exhibit had, of course, nothing primary or kindergarten. It seemed to be made up of a few mechanical drawings and a number of well-executed copies of pictures. While the work was good, I can't say as a teacher I think much of the educational value of copying one picture from another.

The Missouri exhibit was the only one in which I found harness making. I tried harness making a number of years ago, and it evidently wasn't adapted to the climate of Michigan. I went so far as to say I would make a double harness for 50 cents if the leather and fittings were furnished, and I would furnish the thread and wax, but I was utterly unable to get work, even at those terms. From the fact that a cheap factory-made harness will sell for less than good leather costs, I can't see how it can be done. But in Missouri they say they can sell all they make, and they certainly had some well-made harness there. As an addition to the shoemaking trade, harness mending and the making of harness is very desirable; and a farmer, I find, generally likes to have his boy capable of mending a trace or doing any little job on the harness at home.

The smith work in the exhibition of the Wisconsin school was the only work of that kind I saw. I am a blacksmith myself. When I was fitted for college my father told me he wanted me to learn a handicraft before I went to college, and I consider myself well qualified to judge blacksmith work, and I thought this forging particularly good. There were a pair of compasses that not one professional blacksmith in ten could duplicate.

In the Mississippi exhibit what interested me most was the sanitary kitchen. I wish I had one like it. I don't wonder they put it in. It was something to be proud of. They also had a box made of 14 different kinds of wood, perhaps more, but the finish on the woodwork wasn't just what it should be.

I want to say of the exhibit of the Wisconsin school that those who have not visited the shops of the Wisconsin school have made a great mistake. They certainly are well equipped with teachers and apparatus to do good work, and they have done it. I was perfectly astonished to find what they had done.

Their millinery was particularly fine. We teach it in Michigan, but I take off my hat to Wisconsin millinery. They seem to get better results than we do. There is one thing they do here that I would advise any teacher on a poor salary to learn, and that is how to dye the ostrich tips. In a very short time they renovate or dye any color they desire. It seems as if any enterprising deaf girl could get enough work to do in that line.

The silhouette and designs made from stenciling were very good. Their work is as good as you can see anywhere. The perforated and stamped metals, I understand, is a new thing, but so far as they have gone it is very creditable.

The course in domestic science, all that pertains to handwork and dressmaking, seems to be very thorough, and there again they use what might be called mechanical drawings; in fact, I run against mechanical drawings wherever I go, and I can't understand what sort of a hole that Englishman had his head in when he came to American schools and didn't find them. They reach the needlework step by step in a very educational manner. In their pattern cutting and dress



designing they have a girl first make a sketch of the garment she is going to make. Then she goes to work and by a purely mechanical process draws the pattern for that dress. Then she makes a model of the dress in paper, and then she cuts out her pattern, which goes to the dressmaker for suggestions and alterations, if necessary. From the results obtained I think this method must be a remarkably good one.

The shops in this school would serve as a model for any school in the country. They are certainly thoroughly supplied and they certainly use mechanical drawings. They give the manual training to the younger pupils, then put them into shops. They have their pupils draw things from the written order or direction, submit the drawings to a competent person, and then go and make the thing.

Dr. DOBYNS. You wouldn't say the shops here are models in the way of machinery, would you? Mr. Walker told me he was positively opposed to machinery in the wood shop, except the saws and the little lathes they have there.

Dr. CLARKE. I don't think I saw any shaper or any planer, but I refer to the saws and such things. There certainly were plenty of them. If a boy working upstairs wanted a jig-saw he didn't have to go downstairs; there was one upstairs, too. I think there were six turning lathes. I notice that most of the lumber comes dressed. There is so little difference in the price that I didn't wonder at that.

In their forge room they have forges enough for the largest institution in the country, and then to spare; and in that room there was the same system. There was a stack of mechanical drawings and blue prints that filled a case 6 feet high and 4 feet wide, and very evidently they use them. They showed me the drawings and the work.

I think the Wisconsin school deserves a great deal of praise, both for its work in what we call art and hand work and in its shops.

Mr. WHITE. Since the exhibit of Kansas has been criticised, perhaps I may be permitted to say that our experience in harness making has been very different from that of the Michigan school. There was so much demand for our harness that we were all sold out and had none to send. Perhaps if our boys did not do such excellent work we would not be able to sell it so readily.

Dr. DOBYNS. Don't you think every institution would be justified in going to the expense of sending an exhibit to the convention?

Dr. CLARKE. My experience in sending exhibits has been rather painful. I will not send any exhibit unless I have money to send some one to look after it. I sent one to Atlanta, Ga., at their especial solicitation. It was understood that if I paid the freight down it would come back free. When it came back they demanded freight. It had been out about six months. I said, "You agreed to deduct that freight." They said that meant only for the exhibits that were sent on to the Cotton Exposition, and this had not been there, but had lain in their warehouse, and we found when we came to open it that it had never been opened.

A MEMBER. That wasn't a convention of the deaf?

Dr. CLARKE. No; I think usually a school would be glad to send an exhibit, but I can't see how we can advise them to, unless some one is sent to take care of them. It is not everywhere we will be treated as we have here in Wisconsin. The Wisconsin people are so hospitable, so interested in the work that it made no difference whether

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there was anyone with the work or not. It was put up and shown to every advantage.

MISS ELIZABETH CLARKE. It seems to me that so much more is being done for our boys than for our girls along industrial lines. How few of our girls leave our schools capable of making their own way in the world. I speak of conditions in the South, as I am from the North Carolina school. Most of the girls there go back to the farms. Many of them live on small ones in the mountains, where they have the bare necessities of life. At best it is hard for them. Those in the more thickly populated districts and towns (we have practically no cities in the State) go into the factories. Few factories are the places for deaf girls. Industries should be put in the various schools, making it possible for the girls as well as the boys to be self-supporting, for the day has come when it is necessary.

Dressmaking, millinery, handicraft, etc., should be taught in every school (as they are in some of the schools). Familiar as I am with conditions in the South, I suggest hairdressing and manicuring be introduced as an occupation for girls. I find there is a great demand for such work well done, especially for the shampoo. A girl could remain at home, have a small room fitted up, or, better still, go from house to house. If it was known she understood her work, she would have no trouble in getting 50 cents for a shampoo. She could easily earn about \$40 a month, and, being at home, it would be enough for her to save some. I have known of several young women that have had no trouble in getting plenty of work. Should not our girls as well as our boys be given tools to work with and be self-supporting citizens?

DR. CLARKE. The Baltimore colored school has an exhibit of wood-work that showed they were going to have some good colored carpenters down there before long.

DR. CROUTER. I have noticed from time to time during this discussion mention of manufacturing articles for sale in schools for the deaf. I should like to ask if that custom is common to all the schools that have exhibits here, and, if it is a common practice, if there is any difficulty with the trade-unions?

DR. CLARKE. That is one piece of meanness you can't lay onto the trade-unions. But if I sold furniture in Michigan I would be in trouble with the Grand Rapids furniture factories. I did years ago have Gov. Pingree call me up and ask me why I was running a big shoe factory. He was our picturesque governor and he used picturesque language. He wanted to know if I was supplying all that part of the State. I was able to tell him we were not selling shoes except as made to order; that I was making shoemakers, not shoes. He said, "Where do your shoemakers go?" I said, "At present I have six in the firm of Smith & Pingree, at Detroit." He said, "Is that so? Then I have been misinformed. Send me some more." The product of our shop is worn by our own children and sent out of the State. We have got to make a lot of shoes to supply 300 pupils.

DR. CROUTER. I understood one of the members to say that harness was sold. Is that practice carried out in dressmaking and shoemaking? I am asking for information, because in connection with our own work we manufacture nothing whatever for sale. Everything is consumed in the school.

Dr. CLARKE. As I said, when we got the school stocked up with harness enough to last it for 20 years we had to stop. Our trustees would occasionally come down to buy a little harness, but they got stocked up, too.

A MEMBER. I understand you are wearing a suit of clothes made by your boys?

Dr. CLARKE. I am. It was not only made by the boys, but the head of the shop didn't touch it. He simply stood at the boy's elbow while he was cutting.

Miss CARTER. What about the exhibit from China?

Dr. CLARKE. Well, I don't think there is anything educational in the exhibit from China, but it is wonderful that they are able to do as much as they do.

The second observation on the International Industrial Exhibit was given by Mr. S. N. Peterson, of Minnesota, as follows:

Mr. President and members of the convention: When some time since Mr. Robinson asked me to make some observations on the industrial exhibit I readily consented, thinking it would be a simple matter; but now, since I have seen the various exhibits, I find it more difficult than I anticipated.

To act as a criterion on the competency of the worker with no other guide than finished samples of his work is simply impossible. To do that three factors are necessary: First, the age of the pupil who did the work; second, the time required in doing it; and, third, the amount of assistance received from the instructor.

The exhibit shows evidence of competent instructors and apt pupils. It is very representative. Practically every trade and handicraft that the deaf need to learn is represented, with the possible exception of bookbinding. I believe bookbinding is a good trade for the deaf. The Minnesota school has taught bookbinding in connection with printing for the last few years. The boys are doing very good work in that line. Does any other school teach bookbinding systematically? Also pattern making is missing.

The exhibit, taken as a whole, is very good, both as to design and workmanship. However, there are a few cases that show evidence of lack of attention to details. The instructor can not be too strict as to details and neatness. The teacher in the schoolroom will not accept a misspelled word. In like manner the instructor in the shops should not accept any work that could be improved.

In the mechanical drawings, the weakest point is the lettering. I am happy to notice an almost total absence of pyrographic work. To do pyrography is dangerous to the health, because the worker must of necessity inhale a greater or less amount of smoke. On this account this work should be done very sparingly, if at all. I am not a competent judge of girl's work, but it requires no expert to see that the quality is of a very high grade.

On motion, duly seconded and voted upon, the convention unanimously adjourned until 9 o'clock Thursday morning.

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## KINDERGARTEN SECTION.

THURSDAY, JULY 13, 1911.

## PROGRAM, EIGHTH DAY.

9 a. m. Called to order by the president. Conference on "Kindergarten news and notes," directed by Mr. Richard O. Johnson, Indiana.

9.30 a. m. Address, "Characteristics in the mental activity of young children," by Dr. Charles H. Judd, director School of Education, University of Chicago.

10.30 a. m. Conference on "Principles underlying illustrative drawings," directed by Miss Jennie I. Cade, Chicago, Ill.

11 a. m. Conference on "The use of material as an aid to the natural acquisition of language," directed by Miss Mary McCowen, Chicago, Ill.

11.30 a. m. Conference on "Education through play" (games and folk dances), directed by Miss Frances Wettstein, Milwaukee, Wis.

The convention was called to order at 9 a. m. by Dr. Gallaudet, and was opened with prayer by the Rev. T. M. Wangerin, of Milwaukee.

The secretary announced that at the meeting held Wednesday afternoon of the executive committee and the chairmen of the various standing committees the following names were reported as members of various sections.

*Normal section.*—Miss Caroline A. Yale, of Massachusetts, chairman; Percival Hall, of the District of Columbia; R. O. Johnson, of Indiana; E. A. Gruver, of New York; Miss Mary McCowen, of Illinois.

*Oral section.*—A. L. E. Crouter, of Pennsylvania, chairman; Miss Frances Wettstein, of Wisconsin; F. M. Driggs, of Utah; Harris Taylor, of New York; F. W. Booth, of Nebraska.

*Auricular section.*—Harris Taylor, of New York, chairman; W. N. Burt, of Pennsylvania; W. K. Argo, of Colorado; Miss Amy Burke, of Ontario; J. F. Bledsoe, of Maryland.

*Art section.*—Miss Mary B. Beattie, of Michigan, chairman; Miss Mary C. Upham, of Illinois; Miss Stella Fiske, of Wisconsin; Mrs. O. A. Betts, of New York; Miss Eleanor P. Jones, of Pennsylvania.

*Kindergarten section.*—R. O. Johnson, of Indiana, chairman; Mrs. Cornelia B. Eggers, of Illinois; Miss Mary Lyne, of Colorado; Miss Georgia Andrews, of New York; Miss Edna Gent, of Indiana.

*Industrial section.*—Warren Robinson, of Wisconsin, chairman; C. E. White, of Kansas; Mrs. Minnie B. Kreuger, of Illinois; Duncan A. Cameron, of Mississippi; J. M. Stewart, of Michigan.

*Eastern local section.*—Robert Patterson, of Ohio, chairman; A. C. Manning, of Pennsylvania; Miss Helen Fay, of the District of Columbia; Miss Myra Barrager, of New York; C. W. Ely, of Maryland.

*Southern local section.*—W. Laurens Walker, of South Carolina, chairman; G. D. Burlitt, of Virginia; Connor Wright, of Georgia; J. W. Blattner, of Texas; Weston Jenkins, of Alabama.

*Western local section.*—F. P. Clarke, of Washington, chairman; Miss Grace Beattie, of Colorado; Miss Ethel Hammond, of Wisconsin; H. J. McDermid, of Manitoba; Miss N. A. Pollard, of Minnesota.

Motion was made, seconded, and unanimously carried that all persons not regularly engaged in the teaching of the deaf who had paid dues at this convention meeting be made honorary members of the association.

Motion was also made, seconded, and carried that Mr. Silvado, of Brazil, be elected an honorary member without the payment of dues.

Dr. GALLAUDET: I appoint Mr. J. L. Smith to take charge of the matter of preparing suitable notices of the lives and work of those members of the convention who have passed away since the last meeting, and I request any of you who have had near friends who have



died in this time that you will communicate with Mr. Smith, giving him suitable sketches of the lives and work of those who have died.

Dr. Dobyns, whom we all know as a self-sacrificing member of the convention, has kindly consented to act as committee on program for the next convention. His work for this convention was so well done that I am sure there will be no question of the convention taking advantage of his kind, considerate offer. I will ask for a manifestation on the part of the convention.

It was evidenced by a unanimous vote that the members of the convention were in favor of accepting Dr. Dobyns's offer.

Dr. DOBYNS. I would like to say just a word about a letter, received on my arrival here, from a far-distant friend, from a member of the convention whom many of you will remember as a lovely interpreter at different times in our convention. I refer to the lady who was Miss Delia Delight Rice. Perhaps you know she is in Manila. She was married some months ago, but continues her work as an instructor in that school. I wrote her some weeks ago, and this letter is an answer to that. She speaks of her great gratification at hearing from me and at having been invited to attend this convention. She wrote in a much encouraged manner in this letter and sent her greetings to the convention. She is now Mrs. Weber.

Dr. GALLAUDET. I have this to say in regard to the addresses made by prominent educators of this vicinity. It has been thought best by the executive committee, in the past, that these addresses be spread in full upon the proceedings. This year the proceedings are to be printed by the Government. The provision regarding the matter is that "Officers of the convention shall submit to Congress such portion of their proceedings as shall be of general interest regarding the education of the deaf." These fine addresses to which we have had the pleasure of listening, do not relate to the education of the deaf, although they are of general interest to us as educators. It is probable that if they were submitted entire in the report they would be ruled out. I make this announcement in order that you will understand why they do not appear in the proceedings. Of course due mention will be made and due honor given the speakers.

The proceedings of the morning, the kindergarten section, will be under the direction of Miss Mary McCowen, of Chicago.

Miss McCOWEN. Educational changes, we are told, always begin at the top; we learned from Miss Yale how visible speech is being reintroduced into the Clarke school at the top, and is gradually working down. Those familiar with the history of manual training in the public schools of the land know how that was introduced in the higher rooms and was gradually moved down in the grades. Domestic science for girls, too, went in at the top and is gradually being put into the lower grades. Art, particularly drawing, has had a similar experience, although perhaps the change was more rapid. In the schools for the deaf, not very long ago, art was represented by drawing from casts in the grammar grades. To-day, in the same schools, drawing is taught to the youngest children as a means of expression.

But in another sense, and quite a different one, education began at the top. There was a time when education was limited almost exclusively to the clergy; when it was thought unnecessary for education to be provided, except for those devoted ones who laboriously



prepared and preserved the archives of the nation, and for the rulers and nobles, whose sons were to succeed them as the leaders of the people. But the rulers and nobles found it necessary to have those sons prepared for their responsibilities, and so education of the sons began. Then among the common people, who had been able to accumulate wealth, rose an ambition that their sons, too, might be prepared to become possible leaders and they sought education for them. And it came to pass gradually that schools, colleges, and universities were founded until education was open to anyone who would pay the price. Then came Pestalozzi who gathered together the neglected children of the streets. Luther, who did the same work for the children of the church, and a movement for the education of the common people was begun which has spread outward and upward and downward; has come to include higher education for women; better education for little children, through Froebel; education for the deaf, education for the blind, for the deaf blind, for the crippled in brain or body, for all the helpless ones; until to-day the watchword of all the civilized countries of the world is "Universal education."

Now, in all these different movements every good cause has suffered not alone from its enemies, but from its friends, and the kindergarten perhaps more than any other. The spread of the movement was so rapid, the demand for teachers so great, the opportunities for observation of satisfactory work so limited, the courses of training for teachers so brief, and the preparation of those who entered upon the work so scanty it was inevitable that there must be much misdirected effort and many blunders. Now, these blunders led to misapprehensions that have served from the earliest times as the men of straw, to be set up and knocked down by the logic of those who imagined they were talking against the kindergarten. Among these fallacies, with reference to the kindergarten, which still obtain in certain quarters, some of the most potent are that the kindergarten engenders lack of respect for authority, disinclination for work or thought, interest in nothing but play, babyishness, and lawlessness. Now, if there is one thing the kindergarten stands for it is not for lawlessness, not for license, but for liberty under law, for freedom within certain universal fundamental laws, respect for authority, respect for the rights of others, self-activity as a means of growth, development of power through training in initiative, interest in everything seen; desire to know, joy in work, and happiness in service. These are some of the things for which the kindergarten stands. These are the things for which every good, true home stands and which come to the child in such homes at the mother's knee. But under conditions of present living much of this is crowded out of the home and must be taken up in the school work or left undone. As to what the teacher must know and do in order to meet this need, the mechanic must know the material to be used, he must have in mind clearly the thing he is going to construct, and also know the means and method of changing the raw material into the desired product. The teacher of any subject must know first the subject, must know the child, and must know the effective way of presenting that subject. The physical-culture teacher must know the body of the child and the laws of physical growth and development. The kindergartner must,

above all, be a student of the child and must know the laws controlling the growth of both mind and body.

We are very much honored in having with us to-day to speak on this most important topic—the laws controlling the mental growth and activity of the child—one of the leaders of educational work, Dr. C. A. Judd, from the University of Chicago.

Dr. Judd, director of the school of education of the University of Chicago, delivered an able and interesting lecture on "Characteristics in the mental activity of young children."

Dr. Judd said that in the study of the development of intelligence appearing in the family relation and in human society one of the elements that is of significance to the individual, as well as to society as a whole, is social contact; that the development of social contact is subject to oral expression in the normal youth, for which some substitute must be found in the individual not possessed of normal capacity; that the child coming into the schools for the deaf lacks only that which the normal child has received through contact with society and the family, and when the teacher is able to put into the life of that child what he did not bring there as normal equipment, then his teacher is giving him his expression to society, just what he needs to distinguish him from an unintelligent animal.

That our sense of hearing is primarily a social sense, since civilization has rendered it unnecessary to use our ears for purposes of location and protection from dangers. Social activity is a necessity and of more importance than industrial activity. The social problem of our children must be solved in play, the mingling together in play, and not allowing any of them to become isolated; for anyone who has not realized the conventions of society is isolated. The essence of our work with the child during his early years can be defined in the statement that we are socializing the child and preventing him from becoming such an isolated individual, without sympathy for the rest of the world. And while with the normal child this is accomplished without difficulty, because the family of the normal child have taught it to add meaning to its articulation, and hence it has development, still, society has just as much obligation and duty to deaf children and the same difficulties must be surmounted.

The members of the convention expressed their appreciation of Dr. Judd's address by a rising vote of thanks.

Miss McCOWEN. Mr. R. O. Johnson is the next speaker on the program.

#### CONFERENCE ON KINDERGARTEN NEWS AND NOTES.

Directed by Mr. RICHARD O. JOHNSON, Indiana.

1. Report of kindergarten section, National Education Association, San Francisco, Cal.
2. Report of International Kindergarten Union, Cincinnati.
3. New developments along kindergarten lines.

Mr. R. O. JOHNSON. Ladies and gentlemen, this is the concluding day of the convention, the audience is naturally small, and those who are here will be thoroughly rushed before train time. The program this morning is rather long, and what I am supposed to say concerning "Kindergarten news and notes" is not of much importance. On the program are other subjects which will be presented fully and are of more importance than that detailed to me. The conference of

Miss McCowen and the conference of Miss Wettstein deal with matters of great importance, and I know you will want to hear them explained thoroughly and carefully. For these reasons, I am going to cut out nearly all I had to say concerning the subject assigned me, and crave the indulgence of the audience if, while I have your attention, I make brief mention of the matter of pensions for teachers and others, in which I know you are interested and which has been postponed two or three times because of program pressure. We are here to consider the child; it is not altogether unfitting that we consider old age, for the two go hand in hand through life.

The step from primitive education to these modern educational methods, in which sociology and psychology play such a great and important part, is indeed a far one. It would be pleasing if we had the time to trace this development of education in the child. The development begins, it goes without saying, the day the babe is born; the babe in arms has a far greater understanding of things and spoken language than we know of. As the babe develops it develops from the hereditary point, from the point established and handed down to it by a long line of ancestors, on to the point which it later reaches through its development. And it is our duty to watch and direct that development, and, if heredity or environment should tend to develop along certain lines which we would consider injurious to that child's well-being, it is our duty to so guide and direct it as to check that tendency and cause it to result in good to the child. That is right where kindergarten work begins and the reason of its great value. I am a firm believer in its efficiency for good from the time that the child can stand at its mother's knee. We, unfortunately, can not do that with the deaf child; he comes to us at 6 years no further developed than the 2-year-old child who can hear.

I think it was Timothy Dwight who stated that the child learns more between the ages of 2 and 5 than in all the rest of its life; all of which is denied the deaf child. And because, in the great majority of cases, the parents are unfitted to direct the bringing up of their deaf children, I believe in the kindergarten in our schools for the deaf. We are adapting to the use of the deaf the kindergarten material and methods, and while there are some who say that the kindergarten methods as applied have not resulted in good to the child, in nine cases out of ten I believe that you can put your finger on the complainer and say, "The fault is yours."

At the Boston meeting of the National Educational Association in 1910, which I attended, the department of kindergarten education met in joint session with the department of child study and elementary education, and the discussions were participated in by the brightest minds of the educational field, all speaking from experience and in words of highest praise of results attained through kindergarten training. I wish I had the time this morning to speak fully of this meeting, but time pressure forbids. But right here I wish to voice a plea that when the dates for our professional meetings are selected, they will be selected with a view to not conflicting with the meeting of the National Educational Association. The National Educational Association meeting this year is the first I have missed in 10 years, and I regret it exceedingly, and I know of others here of like mind.

Now, with your indulgence, I am going to utilize these last two or three minutes in speaking about this pension matter referred to by me. I have had more or less correspondence concerning it and the profession at large seems to be greatly interested in it; but I am sorry to say a number seem to expect something out of nothing. A great many seem to think that when the age of 65 is reached, or when they have taught 35 years in our schools, there should be some kind of an automatic law by which they could press the button and draw a pension of five or six hundred dollars a year. It would be a very pleasing prospect if we could bring this about, but we will have to first find some very public-spirited person, interested corporation, or generous State to contribute two or three million dollars out of which to draw these pensions.

The American association took this matter up first and appointed a committee, consisting of Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, Mr. Edmund Lyon, and myself, to develop the idea; it was also brought up at the convention at Ogden three years ago and a committee, consisting of Mr. John W. Jones, Dr. William N. Burt, and myself, appointed to work along the same lines in conjunction with the association committee. These committees have been at work obtaining figures and facts. We have endeavored to learn the number of teachers in the country, age of each, and the number of years each has been actively engaged in teaching. We have heard from all but 176 out of 1,349. Of those who have neglected to make answer 119 are women.

Of this number who have replied, 21 are 67 years of age and over; 39 of them have taught 32 years and longer. In one instance I received a reply from a school saying that they considered Carnegie a godless being and would accept nothing from his hands, therefore would give no information. In other schools they hesitated about giving their teachers' ages. In one case they lumped them as best they could and said, "There are about 10 here between the ages of 40 and 50"—and I think 11 of them must be well past 50. Others wrote back that they had no teachers that they desired to be considered as seekers after pensions. I think that an unjust answer, because, while they might not be seekers, there are others who do desire pensions; and I am sure if a pension fund were ever established the ones who at this time do not consider themselves seekers would be glad and most earnest to avail themselves of its privileges, for instead of indicating dependence and charity it should indicate an honor of the highest kind.

We figure up that during the next 15 years, counting those who would come into the pension limits, and those going out by death, we would have 73 age and service pensions combined, calling for \$26,572, and 8 service pensions, calling for \$2,912, and that it would cost about \$2,000 to operate this fund, making a total of \$31,484, which is a fraction over 3 per cent on a million dollars.

I have received numerous letters over the country on this matter. They are all anxious to see this fund established, and I will say that various parties have taken this matter up with Mr. Carnegie and with Dr. Pritchett, who serves as general administrator of the Carnegie Endowment Fund. The opinion seems to be, as expressed by these gentlemen, that we can not be included as beneficiaries of the fund as it now exists. I think Dr. Crouter and some of his friends made quite

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a decided effort on behalf of the late Mr. Kirkhuff, one of the Philadelphia teachers, and made nothing of it. I believe the only thing to do is to arrange for a fund among ourselves by means of paying in from our salaries at the rate of 1 per cent from our yearly salary for a certain number of years, and retiring at a certain age limit, or time-service limit, and being allowed 1 per cent of our salary—that is, on the average salary received for the five years preceding the retirement multiplied by the number of years one has taught.

The only thing I can report is this small progress and to say that this is a worthy opportunity for a wealthy man or woman, or corporation or society, or for a generous and grateful State, or anyone who has money to contribute, to endow such a fund. No doubt we would find such aid after we had established a fund as an earnest of our sincerity in the matter.

In conclusion, the establishing of a pension fund may be slow in coming, but effort to establish it will not be dropped. It will not be a matter of a day, or a week, or a year. It will come sooner or later, and it may come sooner than we expect. I would suggest that the committee be continued, so that if anything does come up there will be in existence some active body properly authorized to act in the matter.

(The committee was continued, with authority and power to act in the matter.)

Miss McCOWEN. I shall introduce to you Miss Cade, who is a teacher of brief experience but very great success in her work with children.

#### CONFERENCE ON PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING ILLUSTRATIVE DRAWINGS.

Directed by Miss JENNIE I. CADE, of Chicago.

1. Why should little children learn to draw?
2. How may an interest in drawing be awakened in young children?
3. What mediums of expression may be used to advantage with young children?
4. What standard of criticism should be applied to the work of children?

Miss CADE. If there is no objection, I will proceed with the questions as printed.

Question 1. Why should little children learn to draw?

Why should anyone learn to draw; or what good is drawing for a child or grown-up? Drawing is one form of expression. We all believe, I think, that the more ways one has for expressing himself the better his education. For instance, the man who talks but can not read is not as well educated as the one who has both written and spoken language at his command; and the person who talks and reads is not as able as the one who talks, reads, sings, and draws. So drawing as one form of expression has educational value. But it is more than a mere form of expression; it is an interesting and vivid form. Can we not recall many times when we have gone to a chalk talk how anxious we became to see the artist pick up his crayon, and how our interest picked up, so to speak, at his first stroke; and how much clearer became the picture he was describing?

What does this form of expression do for the person who is drawing? He will have to know more about the object to be drawn than



he would if he were only going to tell about it. He finds that out after his first attempt to draw it. Then he will have to go and look at the object again carefully. So, without carrying that further, you will see that drawing serves to clear the image for the one who has something to express and makes him observe his surroundings more carefully.

Now, why begin early to draw? If a child begins to draw when young it will become second nature for him to express himself through drawing, and he will not be "afraid to draw," as are so many older children, both hearing and deaf. The child's standard of judgment changes as he grows older. If he begins while he is young, his first drawings satisfy him; they tell the thing he wants them to tell, while if his first attempts are made after he is grown up he will see the flaws. It will not satisfy him, and he will become discouraged.

Again, drawing may serve as an aid to his understanding of a matter. For instance, you try to make a little deaf child understand "The bird flies." Tell him to draw it. Then you will be sure whether or not he understands what you are trying to tell him. If worked out through legitimate mediums it forms a beautiful experience for setting up the desired coordination between mind and hand.

In short, drawing is an easier and more interesting form of written language than writing, and to be able to utilize the richness of its possibilities one must begin to draw when young.

Question 2. How may an interest in drawing be awakened in young children?

In the first place, does the interest have to be awakened? Little children like to draw interesting things. What, you say, do you call interesting things? Any experience of the child, whether it is a beautiful landscape he has seen or a romping game he has been playing. Give him an experience to tell and adequate materials with which to tell it, and do not worry about his interest. If done with the right materials it will be activity, and every teacher knows what a welcome and necessary thing activity is to a little child. The materials interest him. His surprise at some of the results obtained show his keen enjoyment. But there is even a bigger interest than these. We all know with what abandon children enter into play. Think of a little child when he plays he is a locomotive. He assumes the character, has all the personality of the locomotive; he is no longer a piece of humanity; he is a locomotive.

The child putting himself into a thing is beautifully illustrated in Robert Louis Stevenson's "Lamplighter." Think of the stanza,

Now, Tom would be a driver, and Marla go to sea,  
And my papa's a banker, and as rich as he can be;  
But I, when I am stronger and can choose what I'm to do,  
Oh, Leerie, I'll go 'round at night and light the lamps with you.

In another of Robert Louis Stevenson's poems, "The Northwest Passage," as the child tells about the awful shadows on the way up the dark stairs, and how they take the form of living things, you know that he is reliving it.

The child who has something to tell is as much interested in the telling as his listeners. The same is true about most adults. When they tell a thing it usually interests themselves as much, if not more, than it does other people. Think of a man telling his experiences in the war to an obviously uninterested audience, or a woman telling of

an experience that interests no one but herself. Some one has said that most of our conversation consists of enduring other people's talk for the sake of being listened to ourselves. So when a child tells a thing he lives it again, and the same is true when he tells it in drawing. He draws in order to tell other people how the thing looked and to relieve it himself. Thus, he not only has the pleasure of the activity, material, and results, but the greater pleasure of recalling his experience. And this, to a certain extent, he does physically. How often when a little child is trying to express something he assumes its outward attribute, smiles when trying to express pleasure or happiness, and scowls over a drawing expressing something disagreeable.

So, give a child an interesting experience to tell—interesting to his mind, not to the teacher—and adequate materials with which to tell it, and do not worry about his interest.

Question 3. What mediums of expression may be used to advantage with young children?

How about the relation of the mental to the physical condition of a little deaf child? A young child has no small coordinations, and yet some people give little children pencils with which to draw. Now, next to the pen the pencil is the finest medium through which to work. It is what causes outline drawing. And perhaps you see nothing wrong with outline drawing. Perhaps you think it is easier. If you mean quicker, that is true, but which demands the greater skill? When drawing a boy running, for instance, to draw en masse you have to know the principal thing, to draw in outline you have to know the principal thing plus the detail. The arguments against very young children learning to play the piano are generally considered sound. It is too specialized a coordination. Development always begins with the large movements. So we should not give to a little child seeds, pegs, and toothpicks with which to work. They are too fine. Of course a child may be trained to use these, even as a child may be trained to play the piano, but from the standpoint of the child, is it best? Such things are not adequate to express any experience of the small child.

What materials, then, are adequate? How about clay modeling, and by clay modeling I mean none of the oiled-clay work. In the first place, it is so expensive that few teachers can afford to buy enough, and the children are given such small quantities there is not much advantage over those other fine materials. Then it is dirtier; on everything it touches it leaves a grease spot. Spots made by the ordinary clay can easily be removed when it becomes dry. And above both of these reasons is the fact that the oiled clay is not as plastic and does not respond to the touch like the common clay. And when a child is making a thing in clay let him tell the important thing about it. Do not endeavor to have him make his work perfect in contour. If the important thing about a basin to a child is that it holds water and has depth, let him show it in his modeling, even if it is out of proportion. The important thing is that it represents its use. For instance, if he is making a squirrel, to the child the long tail and crouching position as he sits with his tail spread is the important thing, and let him show it in that way. Do not let him attempt to "smooth it up." Some people say, "Little children like to smooth things up." That is sometimes true. Then give them

something that has no definite shape. A polar bear and the cake of ice usually accompanying him is a good subject to show the difference in treatment of a thing. Let him smooth the ice to his heart's content, but not the polar bear.

Now, another material which may be used with children is paper tearing. It should be done with thick soft paper. Suppose a child has been sliding downhill and is telling you about it. Let him tear it in paper. A child would try the sled in different places on the hill before finally pasting it. This is the unconscious beginning of composition. There is a good opportunity for choice. Would you use light paper on dark or dark paper on light? Then different shades of colored paper may be used also.

Another means of expression which is always accessible and usually adequate is chalk and blackboard. It gives a chance for big movements. For instance, a little boy has been telling about his uncle bringing him a bright rosy apple. Let him go to the board and show the other children the apple. It may not be perfectly drawn, but to him it will be an apple and the same apple his uncle gave him. Or perhaps another little child wants to tell about the rabbit which has been given him for his birthday. Or the bird house his big sister or brother has put up for him. Let him go to the board and tell it in drawing. There are many other mediums which might be mentioned, but I think there is not time. Among them is the sand table, which I think is generally good.

Question 4. What standard of criticism should be applied to the work of children?

Has the child gotten out of the experience of drawing what there is in it for him? If the teacher feels that the drawing has not done for the child what she wished it to, let her first criticize herself. Did she present the thing well? I do not mean that she should point out to the child what there is in it. She should direct the child, and then insist that he see for himself what there is in it. To direct and not dictate is where the work of the ingenious teacher tells. If the teacher has done her work all right and still the child has not got it, let her lead the child to criticize his own work. A little child 6 years old was talking with one of the teachers out of school hours and telling about his tin soldiers. He was an imaginative child and was giving each one a personality. The teacher said, "Well, Robert, what is the general like?" Robert went to the blackboard, picked up a piece of chalk, and drew the picture of a soldier who was all chest. Do you see that the important thing about the general to the child was his pomposity? Even the buttons stood out at the ends of their thread with pomposity—self-satisfaction. The teacher did not criticize; the interpretation was all right; so he let it go at that. If the child has not seen the important thing, the teacher should make him see the fallacies in his drawing—should make them apparent to him. For instance, a child was told to draw a bridge on the blackboard. He drew it in profile, but with the bridge proper standing perpendicular instead of horizontal, and a gap at each end between bridge and land. The teacher said, "George, could you drive a team of horses over that bridge?" He went back and remedied it by closing the gaps. This was a criticism on perspective.

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In conclusion, then, we should give art to young children on account of the great development, mental and physical, it affords, not to try to produce illustrators, painters, or sculptors.

President GALLAUDET. Through the kindness of Miss McCowen the proceedings of this section will be suspended for a short time to allow the consideration of some resolutions that should receive attention before the close of the convention.

Mr. Lyman Steed, of Washington, D. C., offered the following resolution:

*Resolved*, That the thanks of the convention are extended to Mr. and Mrs. E. W. Walker and all the officers and teachers of the Wisconsin school for the excellent arrangements made for the entertainment of the convention and the efficiency with which they have been carried out.

Mr. James Stewart, of Michigan, offered the following:

*Resolved*, That our thanks are extended to Dr. J. R. Dobyns for the excellent program prepared for the convention; for his thorough organization of arrangements in advance; and for the efficiency and courtesy with which he has acted as our host in the illness of Mr. Walker.

Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, of Pennsylvania, offered the following:

*Resolved*, That our thanks are extended to Dr. E. M. Gallaudet for the impartiality and courtesy with which he has presided over the convention; and to Messrs. Percival Hall and Herbert E. Day and their assistants for their efficient service as secretaries.

Mr. J. H. Eddy, of Arkansas, offered the following:

*Resolved*, That the industrial-section committee be empowered to collect statistics pertaining to the occupations and wage earning of the deaf, after a uniform system, and that these data may be given out by the chairman from time to time, as they become available, between meetings of the conventions.

Dr. J. R. Dobyns, of Mississippi, offered the following:

*Resolved*, That this convention hears of the sudden death of Supt. Noble B. McKee, of Missouri, with the most profound sorrow, and would express to Mrs. McKee and her family and those in the great school which he has successfully managed for so many years its sincerest condolence.

*Resolved further*, That the secretary furnish Mrs. McKee with a copy of these resolutions.

Mr. Weston Jenkins, of Alabama, offered the following:

*Resolved*, That we, the members of this convention, having noted the courtesy, intelligence, and efficiency of those pupils of the Wisconsin school who have had a share in the labors incident to our entertainment, thank our young friends for their contribution to our comfort and pleasure, and congratulate the Wisconsin school on the success of their work, as shown by these samples, in training youth into useful, self-respecting men and women.

Mr. J. H. Eddy, of Arkansas, offered the following:

*Resolved*, That the sincere thanks of the deaf members of the convention be extended to the ladies and gentlemen who have so efficiently interpreted the proceedings for their benefit.

The following resolution, offered by Mr. J. C. Balis, of Ontario, was read by Dr. Fay:

*Resolved*, That the members of the convention return thanks to the citizens of Delavan, through whose kindness they were permitted to visit Delavan Lake in so agreeable a manner.

Each of the foregoing resolutions was unanimously adopted by a rising vote of the members.



## CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION THROUGH PLAY (GAMES AND FOLK DANCES).

Directed by Miss FRANCES WETTSTEIN, of Milwaukee.

1. What is gained through teaching folk dances?
2. How may character be developed through games?
3. What games are suitable for young deaf children?
4. What folk dance may be profitably taught?

Question 1. What psychological law regarding the nascent periods is of special pedagogical significance?

Instincts for certain activities appear at a certain stage in the child's development. If they are properly directed they will develop into power; if left undeveloped the desire for the respective activity vanishes.

Mrs. SPENCER. We all know that certain times are the right times for certain things, and should emphasize very strongly the fact that if children at certain times have a longing for, or show an aptitude for any one thing, and are deprived of the opportunity for culture along those lines, they are apt to lose their interest or aptitude, or both. Hence, if the developmental period of the child should be of any pedagogical importance it behooves the teacher to be watchful of the time when certain interest appear, and then direct and develop them.

Question 2. At what time of life does the instinct for speech appear?

From 1 year up to 4 years of age.

Question 3. Is the law that instincts are transient applicable to the deaf, and do the same instincts appear at the same age in the deaf as in the hearing?

I take it for granted that they do.

Question 4. What is the result if the instinct for speech is permitted to vanish?

The desire for oral expression may never be regained, no matter how hard the teacher may try.

Question 5. What has been the difference in the power of oral expression and the ability to understand speech at the age of 12 between the pupils who entered school when babies and those who entered at 7?

Miss WETTSTEIN. I shall ask Miss McCowen to answer that question.

Miss MCCOWEN. So much depends upon the child and so much upon the environment. The child may be started just right, but unless that right beginning is carried out it may fall by the way, and a child entered at 2 may be little further than the child who did not begin until 7. In comparisons of this kind it is hard to lay down a rule. If a child is carefully taught speech to begin with and is helped to use speech carefully, then the child who began young should be in a much more advanced stage in the understanding and use of language. If language is presented rightly, the child who began early would have a much better chance to have the habit of speech well established, and therefore would be in a much better way to reach out and help himself and continue to grow than the child who began at 7. And yet we do not begin to get hold of all our children at 7.

Miss WETTSTEIN. I should like to have Miss Yale tell us her experience.



Miss YALE. Our experience is that parents urge the admission of pupils at a much earlier age than formerly. At the present time it is our custom, as it has been for several years, to admit none younger than 5. Sometimes we make exceptions, but seldom.

Miss WETTSTEIN. We have had children come to us at the age of 3 or 4, and I have carefully watched their advancement, and at the age of 12 or 13 they may not have had greater power in the written work than those who came at 7, but those who came when very young always had the advantage of reading the lips better, and they have had an intuitive sense of speech and a dislike to signs. The desire to speak in those received young was always much greater than in those who came later.

Question 6. (a) If the hearing receive systematic training during the nascent stages, isn't it doubly important that the deaf receive the same? (b) If training should be given, how can it be given? (c) If parents are not intelligent enough to give training, where should it be given?

(a) It certainly is.

(b) Only through play.

(c) The school must supplement the home.

Question 7. How may character be developed through games, and what are characteristic games between the ages from 2 to 7?

We are indebted to Froebel for revealing to the world the educational truth that play is a potent factor in stimulating a healthful physical and intellectual growth. He saw the interrelation between the body and the mind so clearly that he believed the brain was largely dependent on the action of the body for its growth, a theory which all physiological psychology has proven to be correct. Play is educative primarily because all activity is educative.

Play is the very best means by which the child expresses himself, satisfies the longing which every healthy child has to do something, and gives vent to the animal spirit within him which is likely to break out in some form of mischief unless properly directed.

Games and play are self-mastery. Healthy play develops healthy imaginations and refined tastes. The taste involved in the game tends to fix itself in character.

All games and rhythmic exercises influence character by making the action of the body more definite, more forceful, and more graceful and free. Play makes a child vigorous, alert, capable; whereas if he does not play he eventually becomes sluggish and inefficient, a prey to physical ailments, and nervous disorders.

Through play a child learns obedience to law, courage, justice, and perseverance, which in after years may help him to move mountains.

One of the surest and most effective ways to secure order, system, and cooperation in a disorderly class is through play. It is one of the best agencies in securing discipline naturally and effectively.

Marches and rhythmic exercises aid in the training of bodily control. Children love rhythm and respond most readily to its medium of expression. Rhythm, as expressed in folk dances, was the earliest and most profound means of expression for the soul.

The child from 2 to 7 years of age is acting and reacting. He is giving his first kinks and turns. He is laying out the lines for his future automatism and driving stakes. Style of sitting, walking, throwing, and speaking, reaction to authority, social reaction, are

all becoming defined and being set during these plastic years. The lines are being laid for the child or against it, whether he will or not.

Enough care and systematic training, and no more, should be given as will assure the best approach in all these lines to the years that are to follow.

Training in all that is essential in the character of the child should be given.

In the Pestalozzi Froebel House in Berlin the ideal training is given, if the psychological theories quoted above are correct.

In the kindergarten the play period is a free play period. The child has the liberty to play as he pleases, and he has no supervision except as to discipline. When the play period is over children must work and not only play at work. They prepare their own meals in groups of six or eight, wash the dishes, take care of the bird, paint their playhouse—in short, do everything that would instill into the character of the child the love for the ideal home.

So much for the characteristic plays between the ages from 2 to 7. I shall ask Mr. Winnie to tell us something of characteristic games between the ages of 7 and 9.

MR. WINNIE. It seems to be popular with many of the speakers who have very little to say to be very regardful of the time. As has been said, more time is saved in schools for the deaf than in any other place. I was told I could have but five minutes.

I am not a teacher of the deaf nor a superintendent of a school for the deaf. I have a peculiar relation to the education of the deaf. I hold a position designated as "Inspector of day schools for the deaf." This brings me in contact with the oral instruction of the hearing, and the instruction of the deaf as a part of the hearing school. Consequently I find it very difficult to separate the education of the deaf from the education of the hearing, and the more I come in contact with these schools and the peculiar relation they sustain to the regular hearing schools the more I come to the conclusion there is very little difference between the deaf and hearing except deafness. I asked a prominent superintendent of a school for the deaf what was his opinion as to the play instincts of deaf children, compared with those of hearing children, and he said: "There is no difference." There is no difference between the normal deaf child and the normal hearing child except that one is deaf, consequently the games that would be suitable for hearing children would be suitable for the deaf. And we feel that right here in our day schools for the deaf we have an excellent opportunity to put this idea into practice. We find the deaf children going out upon the playground at school intermission and playing freely with their more fortunate brothers. So our consideration of the subject need apply only to normal children between the ages of 7 and 9.

We find it seems to be a period of retardation, if we may call it such. The activities slow up so that reconstruction may take place for the periods to follow. There is a change in the circulatory system. The arteries and veins are larger in proportion to the size of the heart at this period than before. The brain reaches its growth during this time. Redentition is taking place. Perhaps in a measure it effects digestion. Statistics seem to show that at this period children are more susceptible to adult diseases and less susceptible

to children's diseases. Consequently games for children between these ages should not be so strenuous perhaps as those before or afterwards. Children before the age of 7 enjoy individual play, but at this period the games are organized, and the child takes delight in his play because of some particular aim, some object in view. I shall not attempt to outline any list of games suitable for this period, because, in my judgment, their games correspond to those of the hearing of that age. Many books are being written and are on the market giving lists of games suitable for the different periods of a child's development. Perhaps one of the best is "Education through play," by Johnson, published by Ginn & Co.

There is a great movement all over the country for organized play in our public schools. We have our social centers and recreation centers in all our large cities. We are, at the department of education in Madison, getting out a publication to be used in the public schools of Wisconsin, in which are described suitable games for the use of pupils in our schools. It is my pleasure to share the same office with the State library clerk, who is compiling these games, and while I can not say how many of these publications will be left after the schools of the State are supplied, if any of you are interested in receiving a copy of this book, if you will write to the State superintendent and mention what I have said the chances are you will receive a copy.

Now, I shall not take any more time. It is a larger subject than can be handled in 5 or 10 minutes, or can be handled at all by me with my limited experience in this movement, which is comparatively new.

MISS WETTSTEIN. In regard to play instincts between the ages of 9 and 12, I would like to ask Dr. Judd whether teachers of the deaf would have any reason to believe that instincts appear at a different age in the deaf than in the hearing?

DR. JUDD. I have no facts to justify the assumption that instincts would appear later.

MISS WETTSTEIN. It was a question I could not answer. If children come to us at the age of 7, they have not enough language to understand fairy tales nor stories of that nature. Then we seldom can give them that liking for something that is not true as we can give to younger children. It seemed to me that was one indication justifying the assumption that the instincts appear at the same time in deaf children as in the hearing.

MISS McCOWEN. I would like to ask, as a very interesting contribution to this part of this work, for a word of explanation, five minutes or more, as to the adaption of the kindergarten work in the Northampton school.

MISS YALE. We have no kindergarten, but we use games and occupations adapted to the age and languageless condition of our children when they come in.

The development of sight and touch through various exercises is familiar to almost all of you. We have in charge of our primary department a teacher who was a trained kindergartner. We have made such adaption of the exercises as in our judgment seemed wise, considering that we have children of that age and stage of development where much of the kindergarten work appeals to them, but who are children without language, written or spoken.

Miss McCOWEN. Will Mr. Winnie, in his capacity of observing, give his experience with reference to the development of little children and the use that is made, or might be made, of kindergarten work?

Mr. WINNIE. Of course, in these schools scattered through the State the number of pupils is very small; we have not enough to work out the kindergarten idea as we would have in a school so graded as to permit of a kindergarten department. Milwaukee is really the only city where the school has a kindergarten department, although we have a primary department in the Eau Claire school. I believe that the results, as shown in the school in Milwaukee, are such as to warrant the keeping up of this department.

I make very little distinction between the treatment of the deaf and the hearing, and I have always been a hearty supporter of the kindergarten movement for the hearing, so much so that I took a kindergarten to support for life and have kept her from reentering the work. I find that the opposition to the kindergarten is generally on the part of those who will have to admit that they know nothing about it; that is, the most strenuous opposition. The results obtained from the Milwaukee kindergarten are highly satisfactory.

Miss BILLINGS. We find in our school that the backward children are greatly helped by the kindergarten material and play, and all the children in the kindergarten department adapt themselves more quickly to the habits of the institution than they did years ago when we did not have the department. They only come for stated periods during the day. Even that little bit, we find, helps a good deal.

Dr. TATE. I think the Kansas school has long had a kindergarten.

Mr. WHITE. I fear I must differ from those who have spoken. We have discontinued the kindergarten in the Kansas school for the reason that I found results did not justify its continuance. We are not taking the children in so young as formerly, and we try to adapt some of the kindergarten methods to the older children without exactly calling it a kindergarten.

Miss McCOWEN. This does not mean that you do not believe in the kindergarten?

Mr. WHITE. We really have discarded the kindergarten entirely in the Kansas school and are taking the children in at a later age, expecting, if the parents wish this work done, that they will make provision for its being done elsewhere. One of the chief reasons is that we have no special appropriation for this work, no one to look after the children outside of school, and we consider that a child should be old enough to look after himself in every way before being brought to the school.

Miss McCOWEN. It certainly is true that the conditions which prevail in schools which receive older children are not such as would warrant the admission of kindergarten children without special assistance provided for taking care of them.

Miss WETTSTEIN. We have with us this morning a mother whom we met at the hotel—the mother of a deaf baby. She is an ideal kindergarten, and I shall ask her to tell her experience.

Mrs. JELKS. Last winter I had my baby in a kindergarten with hearing children, and I found she was able to use many more words than she ever had before. We found that she enjoyed the society of children more than she ever had before. She had been

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more reticent than an ordinary child and had acquired very little speech, very few words, when she lost her hearing. I found the kindergarten work helped her in every way, even the music. It seems to me that there is nothing that could excel the kindergarten work for deaf children. My child learned lip reading very rapidly. Her teacher never mouthed to her; none of us ever have. Her teacher simply spoke plainly and naturally, and she responded. Not at first, perhaps, but after being in kindergarten six months she understood everything Miss Gray said to her, knew the names of the other children, and called them by name. She is only 6 now, but I can see a wonderful change in her, owing to the kindergarten work.

#### CONFERENCE ON THE USE OF MATERIAL AS AN AID TO THE NATURAL ACQUISITION OF LANGUAGE.

Directed by Miss MARY McCOWEN, of Chicago.

1. Why should material be used with young children?
2. How may material expression be made to increase the vocabulary of a class?
3. Should material ever be used with the deaf without language accompaniment?
4. What material should be excluded?

Miss McCOWEN. I realize the time is short and the subject has been pretty well covered, so will proceed at once with my questions.

Question 1. Why should material be used with young children?

The whole tendency of not only educational but of industrial and commercial life to-day is the doing of things and not merely talking about them. Why are the magazines of to-day so largely illustrated? Why are the advertisements of to-day nearly all illustrations? Because people want more than talk. Why should little deaf children get more out of handling material than by sitting in a row and talking about it? Suppose they are studying a rabbit, or a squirrel; no matter how interesting the picture, it only represents one phase. Now, if the children are given some material they can use themselves, having seen the animal, and perhaps a different picture of it, being able with their own hands to try to form the thing, after the conception that exists in their own minds, even if they do not make a very great success, they have acquired interest in the thing, so that the next time they see it they will notice it, anxiously trying to learn the things they found themselves unable to work out with their own hands when they had the clay in them.

So in drawing. If children are talking about furniture, for instance, instead of bringing in toy furniture with which to teach them the names of things, why not use the names of things actually there? Or, if they are able to construct something, have pieces of wood, tacks, nails, etc., and let them work out their own ideas of chair, table, or bed. I am sure one of the great values of material in the hands of a little child who is getting language is that it is a most natural incentive to language. Now, we can have a class before us and talk for the sake of talking, talk for the sake of elucidating the work about the picture; but how much more real, vital interest is awakened if the little children are given some material in which they can work out the thought. Suppose it is only paper with which they are to work; if the child wishes a red paper, the papers are here to choose from; he



has to exercise a choice, and has the opportunity to use language in so doing. If he is going to make something out of wood and the hammer is out of his reach, he will have to ask for it to be put where he can reach it, and the request for it will be that much more language for him. If he wishes the nails, they are on the other side of the table, and he must ask for them. If he wants a piece of wood and the teacher hands him a piece too large to handle, there is the incentive for him to ask for a smaller piece. There is the additional incentive for the use of language. And that is the strongest reason why material should be used. Material adapted to the thought that is being presented should be used in the hands of even the youngest. They should not have foremost in mind the perfect formation of objects, but they should take and form the simple material to express the chief characteristic of the thing being studied.

Question 2. How may material expression be made to increase the vocabulary of a class?

I think I have already answered that. There is something to talk about all the time while they are making the things. "This is too long." "This is too short." "I want some more." The vocabulary is being continually increased through use. There is always something being done, and language naturally grows out of it.

Question 3. Should material ever be used with the deaf without language accompaniment?

When the children reach a point where the language to be used to consider the thing before them is known, it has no longer educative value. Only so long as the thing to be brought out is of educative value should that material be presented in that use. When a thing is done is the time the language should be given as a need growing out of it. It then becomes a part of the living vocabulary of the child.

Question 4. What material should be excluded?

There are certain materials not adapted to certain uses. There are things that clay would not properly represent; things that paper tearing would not properly represent; there are things that could not easily and correctly be put into wood. There are, besides, certain kindergarten materials of such fine construction, requiring such intense use of the eye, materials for weaving and sewing, calling for strain on muscles not yet developed. These materials should not be used any more than with hearing children. The kindergarten does not stand for a certain kind of material which is simply put into the hands of the class for busy work, unless there is back of it the thought of its use as a means of development. If you will remember that the kindergarten is the embodiment of right beginning in the mental development of the child and in his adjustment, both physical and mental, to his environment in the hearing and speaking world and that it stands all through its course for the fundamental principles which are just as adapted to college and university work as to the work of giving a little deaf child language.

I regret that the lady who was to have conducted this session was not here. I have done the best I could, but not so well as she would have done. I hope your interest in real kindergarten work will not be lessened, but will grow, and that you will come to have

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true appreciation of its great value in the development of the little deaf children.

Prof. W. A. COCHRANE. If in order, I would like to say just a word in behalf of the officers and teachers of this institution. I would say how much we have enjoyed the meeting of this convention. It has been an inspiration and an uplift to us. We feel very grateful to you; we know that you all feel we have given you a warm reception during most of the sessions of this convention, and, on the other hand, it is gratifying for us to know that no one of you, while with us, has turned the cold shoulder on us. Before the convention came we made arrangements for some rather warm days for the benefit of our southern brothers, hoping to make them feel at home among us. Perhaps we overdid the job a little.

We, as officers and teachers, wish you godspeed in your journey, and rest assured we send with you our most hearty and sincere wishes for your welfare and future success, and we bid you good-by, hoping you will come again soon.

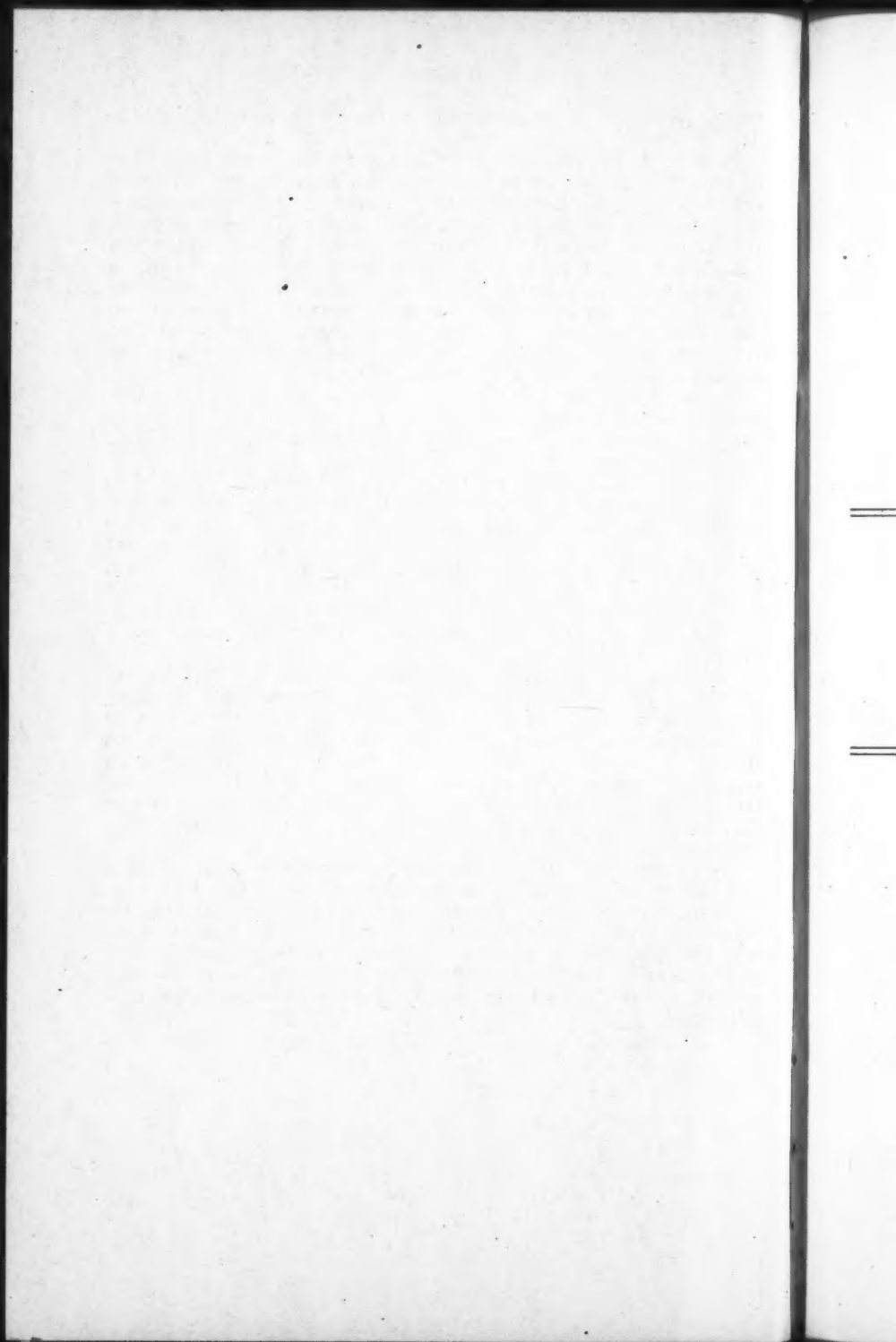
Mr. C. E. WHITE. If I am in order, Mr. President, I would like to make a motion that we send some expression of regard to a gentleman who has attended every meeting of the convention since 1870, and we have all regretted very much that he was not present at this meeting. I refer to Mr. H. C. Hammond, of Olathe, Kans. I move that some message, whether by letter or telegram we will leave to the officers, be sent to him from this convention.

(The motion met with a ready second and was unanimously carried.)

President GALLAUDET. It is my duty to say that the time for adjournment has arrived. It is not necessary to make any extended remarks in connection with this ending of the convention. You all know I have been greatly pleased to attend this meeting and to go through it and have so much to do with it as I have. I will perhaps repeat the expression of my great gratitude to my friends here for the kindness they have shown me and for the distinguished honor they have conferred upon me in connection with this meeting of the convention.

We go away with the feeling that we have enjoyed the meeting and that we have profited by it; that its effects will remain with us.

Feeling that we have lived up to our motto and constitution under which we work, with much thankfulness to our Almighty Father, who has been with us, we feel, during our conferences on this work to which we have devoted our lives, and with a prayer that He may go with us each and all as we scatter, I declare the convention now adjourned.



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## NECROLOGICAL NOTICES.

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### MRS. MARY PERKINS ATWOOD.

Mrs. Mary Perkins Atwood died at her home on Oak Street, Columbus, Ohio, November 12, 1910. She was born in Newburyport, Mass., March 23, 1836, where amidst the cool, health-giving breezes of the ocean she grew and brightened as little Mary Ann Perkins. Becoming deaf at the age of 4 years, she attended school in the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb at Hartford, Conn., from 1847 to 1853, graduating with very high honor. Descended on her mother's side from an illustrious ancestor who reached the Presidency of the United States, and reared within Puritan environments, she was by nature and observation the embodiment of many womanly graces and virtues. On November 24, 1863, she was married. The years of 1864 and 1865 found her in Columbus, Ohio, where her husband taught in the State institution for the deaf until 1870, when they both were induced to become teachers in the Arkansas State school for the deaf. Here, in all the years of her school work, she distinguished herself as a very fine teacher, in society as a lady of rare intelligence and cultured manners, and among the pupils as an affectionate companion, a wise adviser, and a Christian guide. Heaven blessed her with two children, a son and a daughter—the son recalled at an early age and the daughter nine years before her mother. Mrs. Atwood was a true woman in the broadest sense of the word, hence in life she was much sought, admired, and beloved by all who came in contact with her; so in death she is missed, her memory is cherished, and her departure is mourned by those having had the good fortune to be her close friends.

### EGBERT L. BANGS.

Egbert Langdon Bangs, at one time principal of the Michigan School for the Deaf, died at his home in Flint, January 27, 1909, aged 79. He was born in New York State and graduated from Hamilton College. For several years he was a teacher of the deaf in the New York institution under Dr. Harvey P. Peet. In 1864 Mr. Bangs was appointed principal of the Michigan school in the place of Rev. Barnabas M. Fay. He remained at the head of the school for 12 years and during that time did much to lay the foundation of the school's present eminence. Retiring from the principalship in 1876, Mr. Bangs studied law, was admitted to the bar, and settled down to the practice of his profession in Flint, where he spent the remainder of his life. Mr. Bangs was a man of literary tastes, a great reader, and he did no little writing for the public press, both in poetry and prose. He was an active, energetic, public-spirited citizen, a worthy member of society, and a Christian gentleman. His wife died two years before him. He left only one son, Mr. D. F. Bangs, now superintendent of the North Dakota school.

### JOHN A. BOLAND.

John A. Boland, for 18 years a teacher in the West Virginia School for the Deaf, died at George Washington Hospital, Washington, D. C., November 5, 1909. He graduated from the Pennsylvania Institution and then took the course at Gallaudet College. He ranked high as a student and attained eminence as a teacher. He was a man of genial nature and with a strong sense of humor and a happy way of giving vent to it which made him a welcome addition in social circles.

## THOMAS LEWIS BROWN.

By the death of Thomas Lewis Brown, which occurred in Flint, Mich., on February 14, 1909, the Michigan School for the Deaf lost one of its oldest, most faithful, and highly successful teachers—one who had served continuously from the time of the Rev. Barnabas M. Fay, the first principal, down to the present head, Dr. Francis D. Clarke, a period of nearly half a century. During all this long period Mr. Brown had enjoyed good health and was an active and enthusiastic schoolroom worker. But during the summer vacation of 1908 he had undergone a surgical operation at Harper Hospital, in Detroit, and from that time had begun to fail gradually. With the opening of school in the following autumn he, however, resumed his school work and continued to do it until the following January, when he was compelled to take to his bed, from which he never arose.

Thomas Lewis Brown came from good old New England stock and was the son of prominent deaf parents who were among the first pupils of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet at Hartford. He was born at West Henniker, N. H., on July 8, 1839. In the autumn of 1851 he entered the alma mater of his father, the school at Hartford, which was then in charge of Lewis Weld, the successor of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, and in 1857 was graduated with high honors. Of him as a pupil at Hartford his teacher, the late Samuel Porter, long a professor at Gallaudet College, said: "Mr. Brown was a bright, active boy, excelling particularly in debate and in English composition, and he made a good, clean school record both in scholarship and deportment."

After leaving Hartford, Mr. Brown spent a year and a half at his New Hampshire home, assiduously pursuing advanced studies and preparing himself for the work of teaching. During the winter of 1859 he received a call from the Rev. Barnabas M. Fay, then principal of the Michigan school, to come to Flint to teach. He accepted, and on March 10, 1859, arrived in Flint, coming up from Fenton, Mich., over the old stage route, as Flint was not at that time a railroad town. Thus beginning his career as a teacher at Flint, when the school there was in its incipient stage, he lived to see it gradually grow into the large institution it is to-day and to serve faithfully under all its principals and superintendents.

In June, 1876, Mr. Brown was united in marriage to Miss Sarah Hoagland, one of the teachers in the blind department of the Michigan school. She died in 1885, and three years later he married again, this time to Miss Grace Judd, who survives him.

Of him as a teacher it can truly be said that, in the prime of life, he stood without a peer. In the schoolroom he was a master, commanding attention and obedience from all. His patience, gentleness, kindness, force of character, ready tact, learning, and imposing physique won for him the respect and love of all who came under his instruction. Trained by the good old masters at Hartford, he imitated them and taught by example as well as by precept. His one great "hobby" was the teaching of English in the schoolroom, and this he successfully accomplished by methods that were peculiarly his own.

As a story-teller he was inimitable. Long years of practice had made him an adept in the telling of Bible stories and in illustrating the great truths of Scripture. The aim of his chapel talks was to instruct, to widen the intellectual vision, to develop the moral nature, to cultivate a feeling of reverence for God, and to lead children in right ways of conduct—not, as he once expressed it, "to shoot over the heads of the pupils." And in this work he was singularly successful, as the lives of hundreds of graduates of the Michigan school now fully attest.

## MRS. EDITHA FRANCES CONNOR.

Mrs. Editha Frances Connor, wife of principal W. O. Connor, sr., of the Georgia School for the Deaf, died November 1, 1910. For 20 years Mrs. Connor was a teacher in the school. In the upbuilding of the Georgia school she had a large share. She was a woman of kindly, Christian nature, beloved by all. She was ever ready to respond to the call of distress and the sick and the poor never appealed to her in vain. From the many tributes paid to the departed we select the following:

"Last Tuesday the gentle, kind, and loving school mother went home. How much she will be missed none but those with whom she came in daily contact can know.

"She exerted an influence in the school which was felt by all, from the highest to the lowest."

## MISS NELLIE CORNAY.

Miss Nellie Cornay died at her home in Baton Rouge, La., February 23, 1910, of heart failure.

Miss Cornay practically made the State School for the Deaf her home all her life—spending her girlhood romping with the deaf girls, and teaching for 26 years. Her mother was matron from 1872 to 1880, and her elder sister, now Mrs. A. J. MacGregor, of Brooklyn, N. Y., held a like position for 8 years, succeeding her mother upon the latter's death. Miss Cornay thus became intimately acquainted with deaf children, realizing their aspirations, limitations, and difficulties in obtaining an education. She was the oldest teacher in point of service at the Louisiana school, being first appointed by Supt. A. K. Martin in 1883. She had the respect and confidence of every successive superintendent.

Miss Cornay came from one of the oldest and most aristocratic Creole families in Louisiana. She was a devoted member of the Roman Catholic Church, and was ever zealous in her efforts to teach the Catholic children the catechism; hundreds owe her gratitude for preparing them to make their first communion. Leading an unostentatious life she wrought better than she knew, and many have and will call her blessed.

## WILLIAM H. DE MOTTE.

William H. De Motte, one of the oldest and best known educators of the deaf, died at his home in Indianapolis, Ind., January 2, 1910, at the age of 80. His service was long and varied. It began in 1850 in the Indiana school, where he remained till 1864. In 1875 he was appointed superintendent of the Wisconsin school and held that office until 1880. The following two years he was superintendent of the Kansas school, and from 1889 till his death he again taught in the Indiana school. He was a familiar figure at conventions of instructors of the deaf and took an active part in discussions on all subjects, but his chief interest and his most active work were in the line of moral and religious work among the deaf.

## JAMES DENISON.

James Denison, principal of the Kendall School for the Deaf for almost 50 years, died at the George Washington University Hospital, Washington, D. C., Sunday, March 20, 1910.

Mr. Denison was born in Royalton, Vt., in 1837. He became deaf at the age of 7, and received his education at the American School for the Deaf at Hartford, Conn. On graduating he followed the printer's trade, but in a short time reentered the Hartford school to take up the work of the high class. While a member of that class he was tendered, and accepted, a position as teacher in the Michigan School for the Deaf. In 1858, one year afterward, he left the Michigan school to become a teacher in the Kendall School for the Deaf, where his efficiency as an instructor secured for him the principalship of the school, a position he held with ability and success.

As teacher and principal his whole life was devoted to the deaf. His ripe experience made him a valuable counselor and an excellent instructor. He was especially successful in coaching students who wished to enter Gallaudet College. His sympathy for and interest in his pupils gave him a wonderful hold on them. He had splendid ability in his choice of stories and apt illustrations. Being a great reader, especially in literature, his opinions were often sought in the selection of books. He had a remarkable insight into the difficulties and disadvantages under which the deaf labor to acquire a command of language, and suggested remedies with gratifying results.

In 1858 Mr. Denison was married to Miss Elizabeth Lindsay, of Salem, Mass., who died in 1902. He was a devoted father to the two sons who survive him.

A loyal friend, a congenial companion, fearless in expressing his convictions, and an untiring worker for the welfare of the deaf, he was esteemed and loved by all who knew him.

## TIMOTHY F. DRISCOLL.

Timothy F. Driscoll, a teacher in the advanced department of the Institution for the Improved Instruction of the Deaf, New York City, died January 5, 1909. After he graduated from the institution he took a course in Columbia

University, where he ranked high as a student. As a teacher he was faithful and efficient. As a man he was of strong character and had a large influence for good among the deaf. He interested himself in the after-school life of his pupils, and was often of aid to them in getting a start in life. He also exerted a helpful moral influence among the deaf.

#### MISS FRANCES E. FERGUSON.

On February 15, 1911, the Oklahoma School for the Deaf lost a valued teacher through the death of Miss Frances E. Ferguson. She had been at the Oklahoma school but a short time, but had had previous experience as a teacher in other schools. Her mother is a teacher in the West Virginia school.

#### GILBERT OTIS FAY.

Gilbert Otis Fay, one of the oldest and ablest educators of the deaf in America, died at his home in Hartford, Conn., February 18, 1910. He had been engaged in the work of educating the deaf since 1862, covering a period of 49 years. He began his work as a teacher in the Ohio School for the Deaf, and after 4 years he became the superintendent of the school, and remained as such until 1880. In that year he accepted an appointment as teacher in the American School at Hartford, and remained there until his death.

Dr. Fay was a graduate of Yale College, a man of superior intellectual gifts, a profound thinker, a logical reasoner, and a clear expounder. He made numerous valuable contributions to the professional literature of the education of the deaf. He understood the deaf and was a sincere friend of theirs, his interest in them following them out into the world. Among his associates he was looked up to as a leader, and he did much to influence the trend of educational thought.

#### MISS MARY TAYLOR GILMAN GORDON.

Miss Mary Taylor Gilman Gordon, a teacher in the Kendall School for 40 years, died at the Washington Sanatorium October 14, 1911. Miss Gordon began her work in this school as a teacher of the blind in 1860; five years later she became a teacher of the deaf; in 1878 she took a course of training in the oral method, and thereafter taught speech with marked success for 22 years. She retired in 1900 on account of failing health.

Miss Gordon was a teacher of great enthusiasm and devotion, putting her whole heart and soul into the work. In character she was amiable, faithful, sincere, quick to see the good and slow to see any evil in others. In an intimate acquaintance of 45 years the writer of this paragraph never heard her make a censorious or disparaging remark concerning any person.

#### MISS HARRIET E. HAMILTON.

Miss Harriet E. Hamilton, who for a number of years was the head of the oral department in the western New York institution, died April 21, 1910. She was once a teacher in the New York institution at Fanwood, but went to Rochester with Dr. Westervelt in 1876 and remained with him until 1903, when she retired from the profession on account of ill health. She was a lady of intellectual accomplishment and Christian character.

#### SEABORN JONES JOHNSON.

Seaborn Jones Johnson was born October 11, 1860, and died January 13, 1911. He was the son of Dr. Joseph Henry Johnson, the founder and for many years the principal of the Alabama School for the Deaf. He was a graduate of the University of Alabama, where he took the degree of Bachelor of Arts in 1879. He was a teacher in the Alabama School for the Deaf from 1884 to the time of his death. He is survived by his wife, who was Miss Alice Toole, of Talladega, and two sons, a brother, and a sister. He was even tempered, quiet, and unassuming in manner, but a man of high ideals and of clean life. He made and kept many friends. He was much loved by his pupils, to whom he was ever friend and guide as well as instructor. His loss was an irreparable one to the Alabama school.

## CAPT. WILLIAM A. KENDALL.

On Monday, April 15, 1910, the sad news reached the institution that Capt. William A. Kendall, former superintendent of this school, died at his home in Pilot Point. He had been in bad health for some time and for several years was almost blind. Capt. Kendall was superintendent of the Texas school for eight years, from February, 1887, to February, 1895. During the Civil War he served in the Confederate Army, and after the war he returned to Texas and settled down to farm life in Denton County. For years he took a prominent part in the politics of the State and served in the legislature several terms. His administration was marked by great improvements at the school. The main building was raised a story, added to, and improved in various ways. The attendance was largely increased, the oral department started, and the school work generally improved. Capt. Kendall was a man of many excellent qualities. He was a good conversationalist, could always tell an apt story well, and was good company. Honest, economical, clean morally, and possessed of superior executive ability, he left the institution in good shape for that early period of its history.

## JACOB D. KIRKHUFF.

Jacob De Cou Kirkhuff, M. A., with the unusual record of 44 years of continuous service in one institution as an instructor of the deaf, passed away on the 16th of April, 1910, in the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, Philadelphia, where he had given this full measure of an active and useful life. The immediate cause of his death was peritonitis, aggravated by chronic liver trouble.

Mr. Kirkhuff was born in Belvedere, N. J., on January 9, 1837, and was therefore in his seventy-fourth year at the time of his death. Removing to central New York in his childhood days, he there grew to manhood, and prepared himself for Yale with the intention of entering the ministry. Subsequent events, however, directed his career otherwise. In later years, while his parents were living, he claimed Fenton, Mich., as his home.

In 1865, Mr. Kirkhuff was graduated from Yale. It so happened that the distinguished Dr. Harvey Prindle Peet, then principal of the New York Institution for the Deaf, attended the commencement exercises, and was incidentally in quest of young men to take up the work of teaching in his school. Mr. Kirkhuff and one other graduate were induced to accept appointments as a result of this visit. He, however, remained there but a single year. After teaching for a few months in a school for hearing boys in the fall of 1866, he concluded that work among the deaf was more to his preference, and accordingly accepted an offer to teach in the Pennsylvania institution, then at Broad and Pine Streets, assuming his duties on January 1, 1867. Thus it was that he there practically began and ended his life's work.

Mr. Kirkhuff was a man of superior education and culture, a close student of men and events, strong in his likes and dislikes, and decidedly outspoken in his views. In manner of speech and dress and in the general order of things, he was fastidious almost to a fault. He was of a most retiring disposition, courting neither publicity nor popularity, and was peculiarly sensitive. Consequently his friends were few, though his acquaintances were legion. Yet these few friends of his choice were in harmony with his inmost thoughts and feelings. He admitted them to the deeper recesses of his heart, revealing the genial warmth of his nature, his deep sympathy and keen sense of humor. Of sound judgment, they learned to value highly his advice and frequently sought his counsel. With their comradeship and love, together with the unvarying friendship of books, of which he possessed an extensive collection, he was content to live, to do good, and to die.

The deep interest Mr. Kirkhuff evinced in the deaf and his love for them were very marked. He was able and conscientious, and proud of his profession. He understood his pupils and their peculiarities thoroughly. His sympathetic nature and personal interest in them, together with his sound pedagogical principles, account in great measure for his eminent success as a teacher. One of his most conspicuous endeavors was to inculcate in his pupils a taste for reading and ideas of right conduct. He followed the fortunes of his former pupils with deep concern, rejoiced with them in their successes, grieved with them in their failures or misfortunes. Appeals to him for counsel, comfort, or assistance never went unheeded.



Some of Mr. Kirkhuff's associates at the old Broad and Pine School were A. B. Hutton, Robert T. Evans, Benjamin B. McKinley, Joshua Foster, Benjamin D. Pettengill, Thomas Burnside, Joseph O. Pyatt, Thomas Jefferson Trist, A. L. E. Crouter, and Miss Sophie Knabe. Among them were some of the most brilliant teachers of the deaf that ever lived. He possessed a vast fund of anecdotes of the days they spent together, and his portrayal of the characteristics and eccentricities of some of them was highly interesting and entertaining. Of them all, Dr. Crouter, who entered the service of the institution only nine months later than Mr. Kirkhuff, is the sole survivor. From almost the first meeting there sprung up between these two an attachment that grew firmer with the years, and continued unbroken until its severance by death. Theirs was a beautiful friendship, and they knew each other as intimately as it is possible for one man to know another.

While not without his shortcomings, and at times seemingly brusque and cynical, there was not a touch of malice in his nature. Those who knew him best will ever revere him in memory as a man of strong character, tender-hearted, upright, and devotedly loyal. Though he is there no longer, his benign influence still permeates the life of the institution in which he lived so long and labored so faithfully.

#### MORRIS T. LONG.

Morris T. Long, since 1884 an instructor in the colored department of the Kentucky School for the Deaf, died August 1 last of paralysis. He was one of the most prominent and most popular deaf men in Kentucky. He graduated from the Kentucky school in 1860. He was a man of superior qualities of mind and of a genial and social nature. He was imbued with a deep love for nature, and was never so happy as when out in the fields or woods or on lake or stream with gun or rod. He was an entertaining talker, having a fund of reminiscence and anecdote. In his decease he leaves a wife but no children, his last-surviving child having died two years ago.

#### DUNCAN WINDELL McDERMID.

Duncan Windell McDermid was of Scottish descent, having been born in Martin Town, Ontario, in 1858. He received his early education in Ontario public schools. He then entered the Belleville School for the Deaf, afterwards becoming a teacher. After teaching there for five years he went to the Iowa School for the Deaf, where he taught for eight years. In 1890 he was appointed principal of the Manitoba School for the Deaf and held that position until his death on September 12, 1909.

He was an excellent teacher, and his management of the Manitoba institution demonstrated his ability as a superintendent. He was a man of genial, kindly nature, easily attracting and holding friends. He took an active interest in civic and social affairs in Winnipeg, and was held in the highest esteem by his business and social associates.

#### DR. NOBLE BUTLER McKEE.

Dr. Noble Butler McKee was born at Hanover, Ind., on September 1, 1852. Most of his boyhood was spent in this quiet village, which had also been the birthplace of his mother, and it was at the schools and college located there that he received his education. After graduating in 1872, he studied law at the University of Virginia. While casting about for a suitable place in which to begin his legal career, he was offered a situation as teacher in the Indiana Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. He accepted the place as a stepping-stone to the practice of the law, but finding the work congenial and his success very marked, he was soon convinced that teaching was his especial calling. He was a man of unusual intellectual power and gradually developed a method of instruction that attracted the attention of teachers and superintendents and was adopted in part at least by several institutions. Many of my readers will remember with pleasure the interest he excited at one of the conventions when he presented his system and answered questions for several hours in a manner that called forth the admiration of all those present. In the year 1889 he was appointed principal of the Indiana institution, where he remained until 1896, when he was elected superintendent of the Missouri School for the Deaf. Here he remained until his death, which occurred very suddenly on the 20th of June, 1911.

It falls to the lot of few to enlist the respect and affection of his fellow workers and the community in which he lived as did Mr. McKee. At the news of his death all the citizens of Fulton united to do honor to his memory. The governor, several of the State officers, former trustees of the institution, and other friends came from a distance to attend his funeral, and when the time came for his remains to be carried to their last resting place, business in the entire city was suspended. Dr. McKee was a broadminded, genial man; loyal to his friends, generous in his judgment, kind and deferential to his associates, and devoted to the interest of the pupils committed to his care. The board of trustees recognized his peculiar fitness for the position he so ably filled, and in their last biennial report to the State legislature expressed their appreciation of him in the following terms:

"The success to which any institution of any character may attain depends largely upon the one at the helm. In this connection we wish to commend our superintendent, Dr. N. B. McKee, for the most admirable manner in which he has always directed the affairs of this institution.

"He is a gentleman peculiarly fitted by nature and by training for this particular position and work, and he unquestionably fills it with credit to himself and in every way acceptably to the pupils, the officers and teachers, the board of managers, and the State.

"He shows at all times the greatest solicitude for the mental, moral, and physical welfare of every pupil, old or young; and under his parental watch care all the parents of the children and young people can feel that all is well. The State is fortunate, indeed, in having secured the services of such a man, and the gratitude of all our people should go out to him."

Surely this is a high tribute to be paid to a man while still living, but Dr. McKee had endeared himself to a large circle of friends who saw no extravagance in this eulogy of his administration of the affairs of the institution committed to his care. In all his relations with his fellow men he was in every respect and under all circumstances a true type of the Christian gentleman.

#### MISS JANE TOMLINSON MEIGS.

Jane Tomlinson Meigs, an active teacher in the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb from 1851 to 1897 and emeritus teacher from 1897 to 1908, passed from this life into life eternal on September 19, 1908, at the ripe age of 88 years.

Few teachers of this day and generation know much concerning Miss Meigs, yet she was a successful teacher of the deaf for 46 consecutive years in the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.

Miss Meigs was born in 1821 on the Island of Ceylon, where her father had been a missionary more than 40 years. She was graduated from the Albany Female Academy in the class of 1838 and was the last survivor of her class.

As a teacher of the deaf she was unusually successful. The charm of her personality was her unaffected cheerful ways and a goodness of heart that was both simple and unostentatious. She was by nature both charitable and devout. She was passionately fond of flowers and most of her spare time was spent in nurturing them. She could see more beauty in a single leaf than ordinary people would note in a complete conservatory. Miss Meigs was one of those rare beings who thought no ill and said of others nothing but good. She was benevolence personified. Her charities were many, and she stinted herself to give to others. She created no stir. She moved and acted with a modesty that was as unassuming as it was effective. She was one of the charter members of the Church of the Puritans of New York City, and in olden days, when transit facilities were meager, she would walk every Sunday to the church, a distance of 6 miles. She lived a long life and through it all did nothing but good. Whatever she earned she bestowed upon those who were in need or diverted it toward those high and uplifting ideals that it seemed her special mission to uphold.

"And wisest she in this whole wide land

"Of hoarding till bent and gray;

"For all you can hold in your cold, dead hand,

"Is what you have given away.

"And whether to wander the stars or to rest,

"Forever hushed and dumb,

"She gave with a zest and she gave her best,

"And deserves the best to come."

## MISS HATTIE BELL REN.

Hattie Bell Ren departed this life December 13, 1909, after an illness of six weeks with typhoid fever, at Sulphur, Okla.

She was born on a farm near Bellwood, Nebr., August 7, 1885. She went to school at Bellwood until in the fall of 1896, when she, with her parents, moved to David City, Nebr., where she attended high school until the spring of 1899, when she was stricken down with cerebrospinal meningitis which affected her hearing to such an extent that she was compelled to give up her school work for the time being.

Later she went to the School for the Deaf in Omaha. She graduated at the head of her class in 1903. In the fall of the same year she went to Washington, D. C., and entered Gallaudet College, graduating from that institution in 1908.

In the fall of 1908 she accepted a position as teacher in the School for the Deaf at Sulphur, Okla. At the close of the year she was reengaged, and was teaching her second term when she was called to the great beyond.

## MRS. BELLE C. RIGGLE.

After an illness of less than four days, Mrs. Belle C. Riggle died of pneumonia at Little Rock, Ark., on February 2, 1909.

Mrs. Riggle was born in Mississippi, her maiden name being Elmore. At the age of 14 she became deaf, and was enrolled as a pupil at the Arkansas school. She was a very bright pupil, and upon her graduation was employed as a teacher in the school. She was a very capable instructor; she was connected with the Arkansas school for 16 years. She was among the brightest and best-known deaf people in the State and as a teacher ranked with the very best.

## MRS. SUSIE MOOD SHEPHERD.

Mrs. Susie Mood Shepherd, for several years a teacher in the manual department, and later an instructor in the oral department of the Texas school, died of pneumonia on November 15, 1910.

The Lone Star Weekly says of Mrs. Shepherd: "Among her associates she was admired and loved for her excellent qualities of mind and heart, and among the teachers there was none more popular. Cultured and accomplished, her attainments were always at the service of others."

## CHARLES H. TALBOT.

Charles H. Talbot died at his home in Versailles, Ky., February 20, 1910. In 1857 he became a teacher of the deaf in the Kentucky school, and remained there continuously until 1876, except for a period of three years during the Civil War, when he served as a soldier in the Union Army. In 1876 he was chosen superintendent of the Mississippi School for the Deaf, and held that office until 1881. Dr. Dobyns has this to say of him: "Mr. Talbot was a Christian man of great force of character and splendid financial ability, and was successful in carrying the institution through the most trying financial period of the State's history."

## RICHARD THAYER THOMPSON.

Richard Thayer Thompson, a veteran instructor in the Kansas School for the Deaf, died January 11, 1911. The following account of his life and character is taken from the Kansas Star:

"Richard Thayer Thompson was born in Georgia, October 30, 1842. His real name was Thayer, he having adopted the name Thompson, that of his stepfather. About 1851 the family moved to Doniphan County, Kans., where his stepfather became Indian agent at the post across the river from St. Joseph.

"Young Richard being deaf, he was sent to the Missouri school, where he remained only a few months. His father then sent him to New York to enter the Fanwood School, where he was graduated. Harvey Prindle Peet was then principal and Isaac Lewis Peet a teacher, as was also Warring Wilkinson, now principal emeritus of the California school. Among his schoolmates were Mary Toles Peet, Alphonse Johnson, the late F. L. Seliney, Mrs. Weston Jenkins, Rowland B. Lloyd, and others whom we do not now recall.

"In 1872 Richard Thayer Thompson entered upon his duties as a teacher in the Kansas School for the Deaf, and up to the hour of his death remained one of the school's most faithful servants.

"He was a keen student of contemporary affairs and was deeply versed in history. His memory of men and events now forgotten was excellent, and many were the entertaining stories he could relate.

"He left the impress of his Christian character upon generations of pupils, who will learn of his passing from earth with sorrow and mourn their loss."

#### MISS MINNIE VAN ALSTYNE ULINE.

Minnie Van Alstyne Uline was born near Troy, N. Y., and spent her early life there studying and teaching music.

Afterwards she taught in the public schools for three years and then entered the deaf work. She spent one year in the school for the deaf at Mystic, Conn., and a year in the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf, at Mount Airy, when she was stricken with fever and died in August, 1908, at Troy, N. Y.

#### SISTER MARY DE PAZZI WELCH.

Le Colteux St. Mary's Institution, at Buffalo, N. Y., lost a valued teacher by the death of Sister Mary De Pazzi Welch, which occurred September 4, 1910, after a brief illness. She had been a teacher for many years and was greatly beloved by the pupils and her associates.

#### MRS. BERNICE TAYLOR WILLIAMS.

Mrs. Bernice Taylor Williams, wife of the then superintendent of the Texas School for the Deaf, died April 1, 1909. The following is taken from an obituary notice in the Lone Star:

"Mrs. J. H. W. Williams (nee Bernice Taylor) was the daughter of Rev. C. A. Taylor, formerly an honored member of our board and for a number of years the pastor of South Austin Baptist Church.

"She was a valued teacher for four years in our oral department and by her gentle and winning ways endeared herself alike to pupils and coworkers."

[Faint, mostly illegible text, likely a list or directory of names and addresses, organized alphabetically.]

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# INDEX.

## AUTHORS AND SPEAKERS.

	Page.
Archer, T. V., Lip reading as a means of communication.....	153-160
Atwood, R. H., Necrological notice of Mrs. Mary P. Atwood.....	229
Balis, Mrs. S. C., Teachers as examples to pupils.....	111-114
Beattie, Miss Mary B., Primary art.....	62-68
Booth, F. W., discussion of Dr. Crouter's paper on "Possibilities of oral methods in the instruction of deaf children".....	149-152
Blattner, J. W., The ideal number of pupils in oral and manual classes.....	89-97
Brown, Miss Margaret De Motte, Photography.....	68-71
Burt, Dr. W. N., address of welcome.....	25-26
Cade, Miss Jennie I., Principles underlying illustrative drawing.....	213-217
Caldwell, W. A., The educational value of school papers.....	126-127
Cameron, Duncan A., Dairying.....	178-182
Carter, Miss Clyde, Moral and religious training.....	74-76
Cary, Supt. C. P., address of welcome.....	18-20
Clarke, Dr. F. D., Observations on the international industrial exhibit.....	201-206
Connor, W. O., address in response to welcome.....	26-29
Crane, F. R., The training of the boy.....	178
Crouter, Dr. A. L. E.: The possibilities of oral methods in the instruction of deaf children....	138-144
Grading the basis of the size of the class.....	97
Dantzer, Rev. C. Orville, Moral and religious training.....	73
Davidson, Samuel G., Language teaching under oral methods.....	165-168
Davies, I. B., address of welcome.....	20-21
Day, Herbert E., The relation of Gallaudet College to the congenitally deaf.....	119-120
Draper, Amos G., Preparation for Gallaudet College in algebra.....	118-119
Driggs, Frank M.: Address in response to welcome.....	29-30
The employment of machinery in the industrial departments of schools for the deaf.....	195-199
Erd, Robert E., The value of physical training and school athletics.....	121-126
Euritt, G. D., How to make the school homelike.....	97-101
Fay, Allan B., Preparation for Gallaudet College in Latin.....	115
Fay, Dr. E. A., Necrological notice of Miss Mary T. G. Gordon.....	232
Fitzgerald, Miss Edith, What shall we do with the feeble-minded deaf?.....	102-111
Gallaudet, E. M.: Address in response to welcome.....	23-24
President's address.....	38-41
Gruver, E. A., Disputed points in oral instruction.....	145-149
Hall, Percival, The necessary educational requirements of candidates for oral teaching.....	168-170
Hasenstab, Rev. P. J., Encouraging children to observe.....	55
Hotchkiss, J. B., Preparation for Gallaudet College in English.....	116-118
Howard, Jay C., Arrangements for the Duluth trip.....	153
Jenkins, Weston: Correlation of the literary and industrial work.....	183-187
Auditory massage.....	71
Johnson, R. O.: Kindergarten notes.....	210-211
Pensions for teachers.....	212-213
Jones, J. W., How best to prepare the deaf for life.....	31-36
Judd, C. A., Characteristics in the mental activity of young children.....	210
Long, J. S., The notebook as a school helper.....	52-56
Lyman, R. L., address, "Idols and ideals".....	57

	Page.
McAlevy, J. F., plan of the Rhode Island Board for Religious Instruction in its State institution.....	83-84
McCowen, Miss Mary:	
The kindergarten movement.....	208-210
The use of material as an aid to the natural acquisition of language....	223-225
McGregor, Hon. Duncan A., address of welcome.....	15-18
Moeller, Rev. Father, Interests of Catholic children in schools for the deaf....	78-79
Morrison, J. S., How to use the map in geography teaching.....	47-52
Patterson, Robert, Management of disobedient or truant children.....	87-88
Peterson, S. N., Observations on the international industrial exhibit.....	206
Robinson, Warren, introducing Mr. Crane.....	178
Rogers, Miss Harriet B., letter of greeting.....	177
Smith, J. L., report as treasurer.....	128-129
Steed, Lyman, Necrological notice of James Denison.....	231
Stewart, A. A., Proper system of Bible reading.....	85-87
Swiler, J. W., The example of teachers to scholars.....	82-83
Tate, Dr. J. N.:	
Address in response to welcome.....	24-25
Occupations for small children.....	101
Taylor, Harris, Normal training of oral teachers.....	171-176
Tracy, H. Lorraine, Necrological notice of Miss Nellie Cornay.....	231
Walker, E. W., address of welcome.....	21-23
Walker, J. P., The training of industrial instructors of the deaf.....	199-201
Walker, Dr. N. F., Moral and religious training.....	76-78
Ward, Prof. E. J., Education and democracy.....	176
Wertz, Carl N., Why art?.....	58-62
Wettstein, Miss Frances, Education through play.....	218-223
White, C. E., Advisability of placing pupils in industrial establishments under certain conditions.....	189-195
Woods, Miss S. Frances, Reading.....	41-47
Yale, Miss Caroline A., The value of visible speech as a means of developing and correcting speech.....	161-164

## SUBJECTS.

Accomplishments and limitations of the graduates of our schools.....	134-136
Act of incorporation.....	5
Addresses:	
President Gallaudet.....	38-41
Of welcome—	
Supt. C. P. Cary.....	18-20
I. B. Davies.....	20-21
Hon. Duncan A. McGregor.....	15-18
Supt. E. W. Walker.....	21-23
Of response to welcome—	
W. N. Burt.....	25
W. O. Connor.....	26-29
F. M. Driggs.....	29-30
E. M. Gallaudet.....	23
J. N. Tate.....	24-25
Annals:	
Motion to aid.....	129
Amended motion.....	130
Art for young children.....	63
Why art?.....	58-62
Art section, proceedings of.....	58-71
Athletics, their place in school life.....	123
Atwood, Mrs. Mary Perkins, necrological notice.....	229
Bangs, Egbert L., necrological notice.....	229
Bible, the use of, in schools for the deaf.....	80
Boland, John A., necrological notice.....	229
Brown, Thomas Lewis, necrological notice.....	230
Bureau of information, report of.....	128
Business session, proceedings of.....	127-137
Catholic children, interests of.....	78-79
Class, ideal number of pupils to a.....	92-93
Classes, size of.....	95-96
Commissioner of Education, communication from.....	89

	Page.
<b>Committees:</b>	
Chairman of standing.....	7
Executive.....	7
Members of standing.....	7
Nominating.....	89
Report of executive.....	127-129
Report of nominating.....	132
<b>Conferences:</b>	
The advisability of placing pupils in industrial establishments under cer- tain conditions.....	189-195
Correlation of the literary and industrial departments.....	183-187
Dairying.....	178-182
Education through play.....	218-223
The employment of machinery in the industrial departments of schools for the deaf.....	195-198
How to make the school homelike.....	97-101
How to use the map in geography teaching.....	47-52
Ideal number of pupils in oral and manual classes.....	89-97
Kindergarten news and notes.....	210-211
Language teaching under oral methods.....	165-168
Lip reading as a means of communication in teaching.....	153-160
Necessary educational requirements of candidates for oral teaching.....	168-170
Normal training of oral teachers.....	171-176
The notebook as a school help.....	52-56
Photography.....	68-71
Primary art.....	62-68
Principles underlying illustrative drawing.....	213-216
Reading, including the best list of books for school reading.....	41-47
Teachers as examples for pupils.....	111-114
Training of industrial instructors of the deaf.....	199-201
Use of material as an aid to the natural acquisition of language.....	223-225
Value of physical training and school athletics.....	121-126
Value of visible speech as a means of developing and correcting speech.....	161-164
What shall be done with the feeble-minded deaf?.....	102-111
Connor, Mrs. Edith Frances, necrological notice.....	230
Constitution of the convention.....	11-12
Cornay, Miss Nellie, necrological notice.....	231
Correlation of the literary and industrial work.....	183-189
Dairying.....	178-183
<b>Deaf children:</b>	
Discipline of feeble-minded.....	104
Feeble-minded deaf children in schools for the deaf.....	106-107
Number of hours a feeble-minded deaf child should be in school.....	103-104
Number of feeble-minded deaf children to a class.....	103
The use of signs with the feeble-minded deaf.....	105
De Motte, William H., necrological notice.....	231
Denison, James, necrological notice.....	231
<b>Directors:</b>	
For 1908-1911.....	7
For 1911-1914.....	7
Distinction between backward children and feeble-minded children.....	108
<b>Drawing:</b>	
Correlation of drawing and literature.....	65
Mechanical.....	64
Principles underlying illustrative.....	213-216
A stimulus to the moral and mental nature.....	67
Driscoll, Timothy F., necrological notice.....	231
Education through play.....	218-223
<b>Election of—</b>	
Chairmen of committees.....	133
Officers.....	131-132
Employment of small children outside of school hours.....	101
<b>Executive committee:</b>	
Members of—	
1908-1911.....	7
1911-1914.....	7
Report of.....	127-129

	Page.
Exhibit, remarks on the international industrial.....	201-206
Family groups in schools.....	101-102
Favoritism, effect of among pupils.....	113
Fay, Gilbert Otis, necrological notice.....	232
Ferguson, Miss Frances, necrological notice.....	232
Gallaudet College, preparation for:	
In Algebra.....	118-119
In English.....	116-118
In Latin.....	115
The relation of the college to the congenitally deaf.....	119-120
Gallaudet College section.....	115-120
Games, characteristic games between the ages of 7 and 9.....	220-221
Gordon, Miss Mary Taylor Gilman, necrological notice.....	232
Grading as the basis of the size of the class.....	97
Hearing mutes.....	108-110
Hamilton, Miss Harriet E., necrological notice.....	232
Handicraft.....	38
Incorporation of convention, act of.....	5
Industrial departments, use of machinery in.....	195-199
Industrial establishments, advisability of placing pupils in.....	189-195
Industrial section.....	177-206
Instructors, training of industrial instructors of the deaf.....	199-201
Industrial training:	
Value of.....	195-196
Not enough time for.....	36
Interpreters, vote of thanks to.....	217
Johnson, Seaborn Jones, necrological notice.....	232
Kendall, Capt. William A., necrological notice.....	233
Kindergarten section.....	207-225
Fallacies in reference to the kindergarten.....	209
News and notes.....	210-211
Value of kindergarten training to a teacher.....	174
Language, difficulties in the acquirement of.....	114
Letters of—	
Greeting.....	177
Submittal.....	3
Transmittal.....	4
Linotype, the linotype in State schools for the deaf.....	192, 198-199
Lip reading and print reading.....	152
Little paper family, meeting of.....	126
Long, Morris T., necrological notice.....	234
Manual training, lack of time for.....	36
Maps:	
Sheet maps.....	50
Use of maps.....	48-49
Use of railroad maps.....	49-50
Massage, auditory.....	71
Material, use of, as an aid to the natural acquisition of language.....	223-225
McDermid, Duncan Wendell, necrological notice.....	234
McKee, Noble Butler, necrological notice.....	234
Meeting, place of next, referred to executive committee.....	130
Meigs, Miss Jane Tomlinson, necrological notice.....	235
Members:	
Alphabetical list of.....	8-10
List of active.....	8-10
List of honorary.....	10
List of life.....	8
Summary of list of.....	10
Methods, language teaching under oral.....	165-168
Miscellaneous section.....	89-114
Modeling in clay.....	62
Moral and religious section.....	72-78
National association of the deaf, greeting from fraternal delegates.....	133
Necrology, committee on.....	207
Necrological notices:	
Mrs. Mary Perkins Atwood.....	229
Egbert L. Bangs.....	229
John A. Boland.....	229

## Neurological notices—Continued.

	Page.
Thomas Lewis Brown.....	230
Mrs. Editha Frances Connor.....	230
Miss Nellie Cornay.....	231
William H. De Motte.....	231
James Denison.....	231
Timothy F. Driscoll.....	231-232
Miss Frances H. Ferguson.....	232
Gilbert Otis Fay.....	232
Miss Mary Taylor Gilman Gordon.....	232
Miss Harriet E. Hamilton.....	232
Seaborn Jones Johnson.....	232
Capt. William A. Kendall.....	233
Jacob D. Kirkhuff.....	233-234
Morris T. Long.....	234
Duncan Windell McDermid.....	234
Dr. Noble Butler McKee.....	234-235
Miss Jane Tomlinson Meigs.....	235
Miss Hattie Bell Ren.....	236
Mrs. Belle C. Riggle.....	236
Mrs. Susie Mood Shepherd.....	236
Charles H. Talbot.....	236
Richard Thayer Thompson.....	236
Miss Minnie Van Alstyne Uline.....	237
Sister Mary de Pazzi Welch.....	237
Mrs. Bernice Taylor Williams.....	237
Normal section.....	31-56
Normal students, course of study for.....	171
Notebooks:	
Marking notebooks.....	56
The owner of the notebook.....	53
Use of pen and ink in notebooks.....	54
Use of pencil in the notebook.....	54-55
Obituary notices.....	229-237
Occupations for small children.....	101
Officers:	
Election of.....	130-132
List of, for 1908-1911.....	7
List of, 1911-1914.....	7-8
Oral section.....	138-175
Oral teaching, necessary educational requirements of candidates for.....	168-170
Oral work:	
Chapel exercises.....	159
Disputed points in oral instruction.....	145-149
The possibilities of oral methods in the instruction of deaf children.....	138-144
Success of oral work not measured by the intelligibility of the speech acquired.....	152
Papers, educational value of school.....	126-127
Photography:	
Conference on.....	68-71
Cost to a school of a photographic outfit.....	68-69
Outline of a three years' course in photography.....	69
School use of.....	69
Physical training:	
Conference on.....	121-126
Amount of time to be given in a school course.....	124
Director, qualifications, duties of, and remuneration of a physical director.....	125
Effect of, upon national physique.....	122
Effect of, upon defectives and moral degenerates.....	123
Organized departments of.....	122
Preparation of teachers.....	170
Reading:	
Conference on.....	41-47
Devices for stimulating.....	43
How shall we get pupils to read?.....	45-46
Use of pictures as an aid to reading.....	46
Reasons why a class of deaf pupils should be smaller than a class of hearing pupils.....	96



	Page.
Religious section:	
Conference on.....	71-78
Exercises, program of, for Sunday morning.....	72
Facilities for religious training to children of all denominations.....	82
Results of imparting religious instruction by oral and manual methods..	158-159
Ren, Miss Hattie B., necrological notice.....	236
Report of the—	
Bureau of information.....	128
Committee upon the accomplishments and limitations of the graduates of our schools.....	134-136
Executive committee.....	127-129
Treasurer.....	128-129
Resolutions:	
On the death of Supt. Noble B. McKee.....	217
Empowering the industrial section to collect statistics.....	217
Indorsing the combined system and the use of the sign language.....	133
Of thanks.....	217
"Would honor principal".....	130
Riggle, Mrs. Belle C., necrological notice.....	236
School papers, educational value of.....	126-127
Shepherd, Mrs. Susie Mood, necrological notice.....	236
Shops:	
Equipment for a carpenter shop.....	197
Equipment for an up-to-date shoe shop.....	197
Sign language:	
Value to normal students.....	175
Use in chapel instruction.....	160
Sloyd, manual work.....	38
Speech reading:	
Comparison of speech reading with manual spelling as a means of com- munication.....	155
Speech reading as a means of mental development.....	154
Sunday-school lessons, use of international series.....	81
Talbot, Charles H., necrological notice.....	236
Teachers:	
Mannerisms in.....	112
Necessary educational requirements for.....	168-170
Normal training of oral.....	171-175
Preparation of.....	170
Pupil teachers.....	94
Qualifications of.....	111
Qualifications of an oral teacher.....	169-170
Teaching, correlated teaching.....	187-188
Textbooks, in geography.....	48, 51-52
Thompson, Richard Thayer, necrological notice.....	236
Trades:	
Addressograph.....	199
Dairying.....	178-183
Dairying, advantages and disadvantages of, to the deaf.....	179
Discussion of dairying.....	182
Horticulture.....	194
Important trades taught in State schools.....	192
Painting, house painting as a trade for the deaf.....	193-194
Value of learning a trade.....	191
Treasurer, report of.....	128-129
Uline, Miss Minnie Van Alstyne, necrological notice.....	237
Visible speech symbols:	
Use of, at—	
Clarke School.....	162-163
Gallaudet College.....	170
Kentucky school.....	164
Mount Airy.....	162
South Carolina Institution.....	161
Value of visible speech symbols.....	161-164
Water colors, first lessons to young children.....	63
Welch, Sister Mary De Pazzi, necrological notice.....	237
Williams, Mrs. Bernice Taylor, necrological notice.....	237
Work, busy work.....	94-95

Page.

71-78

72

82

58-159

236

128

34-136

27-129

28-129

217

217

133

217

130

236

26-127

236

197

197

175

160

38

155

154

81

236

112

38-170

71-175

170

94

111

39-170

37-188

51-52

236

199

78-183

179

182

194

192

93-194

191

28-129

237

32-163

170

164

162

161

31-164

63

237

237

94-95